

SOCIAL EUROPE

3/89



COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR EMPLOYMENT,
SOCIAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION

Social Europe, published by the Commission of the European Communities, Directorate-General for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs deals with current social affairs in Europe. The review is divided into several parts devoted to employment, equality between men and women, free movement, social protection, education and vocational training, and health and safety. It also reports on the latest developments in national employment policies and on the introduction of new technologies. In addition, once a year, *Social Europe* supplies statistics on social trends in the Member States.

The basic review comes out three times a year. In addition, a number of supplements/files (8-10 a year) are published annually, each dealing in depth with a given subject, e.g. technologies of the future, education and vocational training, equal treatment for men and women, employment, industrial medicine, migrant workers, etc.

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Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1990

ISSN 0255-0776

Catalogue number: CE-AA-89-003-EN-C

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The manuscript was completed on 15 October 1989

Printed in the FR of Germany

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Employment — New technology and social change

Analyses, debates, studies

Employment and working conditions in producer services firms

A synthesis report¹

1. Scope and object

This is a synthesis report of a study on employment and working conditions in high-tech producer service industries, carried out at the request of the Commission of the European Communities. These industries are at the leading-edge of various economic and technological developments in all the Member States. Yet, at present, not much is known about the social aspects of work in these industries. Accordingly, the study attempts to fill some of the notable gaps in our current knowledge on this subject.

Following the normal practice, the study has a selective focus in terms of industries and countries. For the chosen countries, three or more of the following seven industries have been studied in depth:

- (i) software services,
- (ii) value-added networks (VANs),
- (iii) database services,
- (iv) R&D services and high-tech boutiques,
- (v) engineering consultancy services,
- (vi) management consultancy services,
- (vii) securities and other stock market related services.

The emphasis on these seven industries was exclusively dictated by the fact that for each of them information technology (IT) is either a process innovation, resulting in the automation of day-to-day working processes, or a product innovation, resulting in the creation of new products, or both.

A selection of these industries have been covered separately for each of the following four Member States:

- (i) Belgium,
- (ii) Federal Republic of Germany,
- (iii) France,
- (iv) United Kingdom.

For the selected industries and Member States, the study has attempted to cover three detailed aspects of employment:

- (a) past and prospective trends in the quantity of employment,
- (b) past and prospective trends in the quality of employment, as indicated by terms and conditions of work; and by gender, qualifications, occupations and skills background of the workforce; and
- (c) the social role in the development and deployment of the skills that are increasingly required by the national economies, as the diffusion of IT continues apace.

2. Research method and structure

The research method used in this study has three distinct strands:

- (i) *Case studies*: for each of the chosen industries in the four Member States, at least three case studies have been constructed — covering a large firm, a medium-sized firm, and a small firm. They are based on in-company structured interviews with senior executives responsible for business and human-resource planning.
- (ii) *Literature survey*: a detailed literature search has also been carried out in order to identify information and results that can be usefully utilized in shedding light on the past and prospective trends in various aspects of the industries concerned.
- (iii) *Use of published data*: all the available relevant data that have appeared in published form have also been used.

The three strands are meant to complement one another. Between them, they cover primary and secondary sources of information; published and unpublished assessments; and macro- and micro-level material. They offer quantification where it is feasible; and offer 'soft' but useful information where it is not. Either way, they attempt to shed useful light on the key employment-related trends in the high-tech services in a selection of Member States in a way that helps to develop useful insights and intuitions about the other Member States of the European Community.

¹ This article is a synthesis report of the study on this subject drawn up for the Commission of the European Communities by Amin Rajan (United Kingdom). It is in no way binding on the Commission.

The rest of this synthesis report highlights the main findings under three separate headings which, between them, cover the results from the individual country reports, the problems they highlight and the solutions they suggest.

3. Results

The main results from the individual studies covering the four selected countries are presented here under the headings of specific themes that have emerged from the individual country reports. The themes are presented separately below.

Theme 1: The high-tech industries are inadequately documented in the national accounts system

In all four countries, the high-tech industries are poorly documented to the extent that it becomes extremely difficult to research into them. The inadequate documentation substantially results from the newness of these services from the point of view of the national and international standard industrial classifications. For example, as they are now defined, VANs did not even exist when most of the currently-used classification systems were devised at the beginning of this decade.

From the point of view of inter-country comparisons, the problem is even worse because of the definitional differences in the technical functions of these industries and the work occupations performing these functions. For example, what are known as value-added networks in France can equally be regarded as databases in the UK, under stringent but no less meaningful definitions. Also, the defined functions and competences for a programmer in Germany can equally be attributed to a systems analyst in Belgium. In either case, the subject boundary lines are at once ill-defined and open to alternative interpretations. Given these problems, our findings are perforce couched in

general terms that highlight the dominant tendencies rather than specific developments.

Theme 2: The high-tech services are undergoing major structural changes

These industries have a number of diverse characteristics which are symptomatic of major ongoing structural changes. The characteristics in question are:

- (a) *The 'cottage' nature of their various activities:* this especially applies to the software service industry. Small firms' formation rate is high, indicating the importance of 'knowledge' as the prime factor of production.
- (b) *High attrition rate in corporate population:* this is partly because of the single-product character of many firms and partly because of the rapid pace of mergers, aided and abetted by the search for economies of scale and scope in anticipation of the creation of a free market in Europe after 1992.
- (c) *Dominance of oligopolies:* activities like VANs, IT management consultancy, and databases are dominated by large oligopolies, with significant vertical links with their customers. This is because the capital costs of developing the necessary infrastructure — covering systems, technical know-how, and work skills — are high and well beyond the means of small firms.

As a result, there is considerable polarization occurring in these industries, with large firms providing a total package of IT services, and small ones occupying special niche positions through narrow specialization. For the foreseeable future, this polarization will remain the main structural feature of the high-tech service industries. Both their direct exports and imports are low in relation to the turnover, owing to the need for closer customer collaboration. As a result, at present external influences appear to impinge on transnational mergers rather than rapid growth in international trade.

Theme 3: Employment growth has been rapid but it may slow down in future

Data on employment for long historical periods are not available so it is difficult to make longer term growth comparisons. But the available evidence, for what it is worth, points to three dominant tendencies:

- (i) *Small workforce:* expressed as a percentage of the national workforce, the direct employment level in all the high-tech services considered here is very low (Tables 1 to 4). Even when indirect employment (arising from secondary and in-house activities of IT-user industries elsewhere in the economy) is taken into account, the total employment of IT-related employment accounts for no more than 1% of the national workforce in the Member States concerned.
- (ii) *Rapid employment growth:* in the recent past growth has been high because of a low market penetration rate. However, the rising penetration, combined with the search for higher staff productivity through the adoption of fourth generation languages and new tools of computer-aided software engineering, will lead to a lower rate of growth in the period to 1992.
- (iii) *Uneven rate:* the rate, however, will be uneven between the industries on account of differential penetration rates. For example, VANs and database services are set for a continuing strong or accelerating growth (see Tables 1 to 4). Software services, on the other hand, are expecting a lower rate than in the past. These are matters of detail. The substantive point is that the employment growth pattern in our selection of industries does not have common paths in time. Newness of a service and its market penetration rate are the two most critical determinants of the time paths of employment.

Table 1: Belgium: Employment trends

	1986 (1 000)	Average annual growth rate (%) 1987-93
Software consultancy	8.5	8–10
Value-added networks	0.7	30–35
Database services	0.1	60–65

Source: *The Belgian case study* by G. Jacob and F. Pichault.

Table 3: France: Employment trends

	1987 (1 000)	1993 (1 000)	Average annual growth rate (%) 1988-93
Software houses	58	87	7
Value-added networks	13	25	11
Database services	4	7	9

Source: *The French case study* by Laurent Schwab and Nathalie Coste-Cerdan.

Table 2: Federal Republic of Germany: Employment trends

	1986 (1 000)	1993 (1 000)	Average annual growth rate (%) 1986-93
Software development and consultancy	79	180	18
Value-added networks	not available		
Database services	not available		

Source: *The German case study* by Simon Robinson.

Table 4: United Kingdom: Employment trends

	1987 (1 000)	Average annual growth rate (%) 1988-92
Software services	88	3–7
Value-added networks and database services	4	25–35
Securities dealing	46	–1.5
Management consultancy	21	10

Source: *The UK case study* by Amin Rajan.

Theme 4: Employment growth is more a matter of verticalization than externalization

Given the relative newness of all the high-tech services, their employment growth in industries where they constitute primary activities is not influenced so much by externalization. This is because the services were never systematically internalized in the first place. Their growth owes to the introduction of new systems and their complexity which

has increasingly encouraged their users to rely on specialist firms for the necessary technical support, solutions and services. High-tech industries have increasingly formed formal and informal vertical links with their customers under which they provide a range of services.

That said, the importance of externalization cannot be denied. Public-sector procurement programmes are reducing in-house capabilities in favour of external suppliers as a deliberate policy for en-

couraging the growth of an indigenous software capability in the economy. Some externalization is also occurring under the trend towards 'facilities management' which involves entrusting all in-house IT facilities to external contractors who assume full responsibility for meeting total user needs. However, externalization still remains a minor factor underlying the headlong expansion in the employment of high-tech service industries.

Theme 5: Some notable qualitative changes are occurring in employment

Four notable qualitative changes are occurring and will continue to occur:

- (i) *Share of female employees is increasing:* there has been a growth in this share, reflecting the rising economic activity rate of females in all Member States. However, alongside this increase, there is no clear evidence of a corresponding increase in the share of females in higher level occupations, where they continue to be disproportionately underrepresented.
- (ii) *Higher representation of graduates:* all the industries have a high intake of graduates, reflecting the complex nature of the work. Until now, these graduates have predominantly had qualifications in engineering, computing, electronics or physics. The trend, however, is now changing towards more generalist subjects in response to the adoption of fourth generation languages and other tools of computer-aided software engineering, which are collectively simplifying programme specification and generation.
- (iii) *Reliance on experienced recruits:* the staff intake in the high-tech firms not only favours graduates but also those with a few years' work experience. This is because most firms in these industries do not provide adequate provision for in-house training and development, owing to high attrition rates in a tight external labour market.
- (iv) *Favourable terms and conditions of work:* despite their very low union density rates, the high-tech service industries offer attractive rates of pay and conditions of work compared to elsewhere in the economy. This is because of three factors: their growing prosperity; the need to achieve a high retention rate in the tight external labour market; and the relatively small number of employees concerned.

Theme 6: The knowledge content of work is increasing

The knowledge content of work in the high-tech services is increasing and will continue to do so in the 1990s due to three factors:

- (i) *Elimination of low-level work:* the conventional data-entry and programme-generation tasks are now being gradually eliminated due to growth of distributed data processing and user involvement. As a result, some of the low-skilled occupations are being phased out.
- (ii) *Growing systems sophistication:* the unending demand for new products, the trend towards systems integration and the growing application of artificial intelligence is leading to a rapid upgrading of skills for systems analysts, project managers and telecom specialists, to name but a few occupational groups.
- (iii) *Product customization:* one of the most pervasive trends is towards the rapid growth in the demand for customized services, catering for the specific needs and circumstances of the clients. Indeed customization is the natural analogue of verticalization (mentioned under Theme 4). Customization, in turn, requires a widening and deepening in the repertoire of work skills needed by the high-tech services. The details of this process are outlined in the country reports. But its essential thrust is towards hybridization of skills, resulting from the cross-fertilization of technical skills with business and social skills. In effect, computing is becoming more an art than a science.

Theme 7: Rising knowledge content requires human resource planning and development

Hybridization, underpinned by multiple skills, requires better human resource (HR) planning and development. The requisite skills are increasingly related to the individual firm's technology,

products, markets and working methods: after all, they are unique in that they constitute the source of a firm's comparative advantage in relation to its competitors. For such an advantage to occur and prevail, in-house training and development needs to become a high-profile activity.

Many firms in the high-tech industries do not yet have well-defined training paths with clear milestones and outputs for their employees. This is either because training is *ad hoc* and on-the-job or because there are no elaborate systems for producing HR plans. In most industries, excessive concern about losing the staff in a tight labour market has prevented firms from taking in-house training seriously. In other words, training is viewed as an invitation to high attrition.

Theme 8: Nevertheless, high-tech firms are contributing to skills development

Despite their relative smallness and newness, the high-tech industries constitute useful seed-beds for the development of skills required by the rest of the industries in the economy, as technological diffusion continues apace. The industries are more innovative in their use of IT. Their employees also have exposure to a variety of systems operated by their clients in diverse and market environments. As a result, the high-tech industries are becoming viable agents of technology and skills transfers.

So much for the key themes emerging from the four reports covering Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, France and the United Kingdom. We now turn to their implications and then consider some recommendations.

4. Implications

Growing market penetration has been the major demand-side factor promoting business volume and employment in the high-tech services. On the supply-side, a major facilitator has been the availability of the requisite skills.

Since 1986, however, employment growth has been increasingly constrained by skills shortages, emanating from four separate sources:

- (i) *Proliferation of complex systems*: the availability of new systems has resulted in intense product complexity and customization. These in turn have led to growing demand for scarce skills.
- (ii) *Inadequate in-house training and development*: the scarce skills are being developed slowly because of the seemingly low priority accorded to training and development, for fear of attrition.
- (iii) *Inadequate vocational preparation*: the requisite skills cannot be easily provided by the national institutions of education and training because of their marked specificity to individual firms, owing to increasing customization. In any event, the national institutions have yet to show the awareness of the concept of hybridization.
- (iv) *Contraction in school-leaver and graduate populations*: the vicious cycle of inadequate training provision — both in-house and nationally — is being exacerbated by the projected decline in the number of school-leavers and graduates, in response to a step-decline in the birth rates of the Member States in the late 1960s and early 1970s. The potential pool of recruits is thus gradually contracting.

Against the background of these four developments, it is clear that the high-tech services are likely to experience severe supply-side constraints into the 1990s. Thus, even for those low market

penetration services (e. g. VANs and databases), there is no certainty that their potential employment growth would necessarily materialize. This is the most depressing implication of our study. The national and in-house provisions of training have yet to adapt themselves to the emerging skills needs of the high-tech industries.

Unless specific measures are taken, there is a serious risk that all the potential gains of 1992 will substantially bypass the high-tech services. After all, these potential gains are largely likely to accrue through product customization. But this, in turn, requires a high degree of hybridization in the requisite skills. At present, there are no overt signs of progress in this context. So, what needs to be done?

5. Recommendations

Our recommendations are directed at three sets of actors: individual firms in the high-tech sector, national governments and the European Commission. Let us take them in turn.

(a) Individual firms

Four specific actions are needed:

- (i) Better HR planning and development,
- (ii) greater emphasis on hybridization,
- (iii) better and greater provision of training that can command Community-wide recognition,
- (iv) greater involvement in national and EC initiatives so that external pro-

viders of training have a better appreciation of the skills needs of the high-tech services.

(b) National governments

Three specific actions are called for:

- (i) Strive for a better statistical coverage of high-tech services in the national data systems;
- (ii) greater awareness of the changes taking place in the nature of skills required by the high-tech services so that national education and training provision is more effectively targeted;
- (iii) greater awareness of the special circumstances of the high-tech services in the evolution of various initiatives on employment (such as job-sharing, self-employment and remote working).

(c) European Community level

Six specific actions are necessary:

- (i) better focus in Erasmus, Esprit, Comett and other initiatives;
- (ii) work toward common standards in training inside and outside the high-tech services sector;
- (iii) promote better understanding of the sector through conferences, seminars and research studies;
- (iv) identify the obstacles and solutions to mobility within the Community;
- (v) identify barriers to growth in international trade in high-tech services;
- (vi) speed up the GATT negotiations.

Social and economic problems of large cities in Europe

The Commission has recently supported research into the social and economic problems of large cities in Europe. The results of this work were presented by the research team, FERE (Fédération Européenne de Recherches Economiques) at a conference which was held in Brussels in November 1988. The following report outlines the main findings and conclusions.

This study analyses the problems produced by the 'urban crisis' in eight countries and 18 cities from an economic and institutional standpoint. The problems affecting large cities are both complex and manifold, dating back to the beginning of the last decade, when production, employment, demography and the whole make-up of society began to undergo marked changes which generated fears of an irreversible decline. It was felt advisable to analyse these changes and assess how best to deal with them, given the prospect of political union and the single market.

Firstly, it should be pointed out that many of the problems currently encountered are not confined to cities, but are also the product of changes and imbalances affecting industrial society throughout the Western world in the form of demographic trends, environmental pollution and social and territorial imbalances and tensions which often lie far beyond the control of individual countries. Nevertheless, these phenomena tend to be concentrated in cities.

The term 'decline' relates to the decrease in the population and the number of jobs in cities with more than 300 000 inhabitants; in this sense, the number of large European cities in decline has increased sharply over the last 15 years. A more precise definition of the term would appear to be desirable.

The fall in the population is due to a combination of factors, including the tendency to move away from urban areas, often to the mutual benefit of both cities and countryside, the decrease in and ageing of the population, which is largely inevitable and, lastly, the expansion of the urban services sector, i. e. the tendency of services to replace industrial jobs. In most cases, the new posts involve a higher added value and are filled by higher-income groups. For many cities, therefore, the change is a positive one, especially since, in many cases, the effect on industry is broadly acceptable.

Urban decline stems, therefore, from two specific factors: firstly, job creation in the services sector is insufficient to offset losses in industry and only partly involves the same social groups, i. e. unskilled workers and elderly people who are made redundant and young people and women unable to find a first job, with the result that urban unemployment has risen sharply. This situation, in fact, typifies the whole nature of the crisis, which has more to do with social justice and spreading the cost of adaptation than an overall fall in urban income, particularly since many social groups have reaped substantial benefits.

The other cause is the concentration of the cost of these changes in two groups of towns; namely old industrial towns, such as Sheffield, Genoa, Liverpool, Charleroi, Dortmund, Duisburg, characterized by sectors which have passed their peak (textiles, ports, shipyards, iron and steel, metallurgy, basic chemicals) and the various ancillary production processes, whose base has been seriously affected by the crisis, and towns with growing populations lacking an adequate production base and situated in southern Europe where unemployment has reached intolerable proportions and where the overall decline in economic growth, State intervention and emigration has served to exacerbate development problems which, whilst now permanently established, cannot be directly attributed to the 1973-83 recession. Cities such as Naples, Palermo, Malaga, Athens, Grenada, Lisbon, Thessaloniki and Dublin fall into this category.

Because of its polarizing effect, urban decline serves to aggravate regional imbalances. Economic success and prosperity, however, can also be a source of serious urban problems, owing to the spread of consumer goods with their harmful consequences for the environment and the quality of life; as a result, in most of the major European cities, the social limits to the development of these consumer goods (transport facilities, holiday homes, leisure- and culture-related services) have been thrown into sharp relief — the city and its infrastructure often being among the first to feel the effects.

It is clear from this analysis that we need to improve our understanding of this unmistakable *malaise* now affecting the majority of cities which does not represent a decline in the abovementioned sense, since it appears to be independent of economic success or difficulties and cannot therefore be attributed to the effects of a crisis which, although none the less evident, has already passed.

The urban crisis is a different symptom of decline, being a growth-related problem centring on the economic-institutional dimension of cities which have failed to adapt to the increase in their functions brought about by economic and institutional changes, in which the crisis at national government level, resulting from the gradual integration of markets, is a key factor. Cities are thus called upon to play a new institutional role as leading agents of economic policy, with primary responsibility for adapting and transforming supply (production, technical know-how, spatial organization, the emergence of new social groups and professions, etc.). It is intended that the new functions, which relate to the efficiency of production and social cohesion should replace traditional Keynesian demand policies; cities, however, are ill-prepared for these new roles.

The key element in the crisis now affecting cities with a population of over 300 000 is the obligation which they have been implicitly assigned for regulating the economic and social balances, in spite of the fact that they have been de-

nied the necessary machinery and sufficient political and financial scope. Quite independently of their institutional powers, therefore, cities have lacked the necessary authority and structures to cope with the various problems they have had to face: unemployment, the demand for services and income on the part of underprivileged social groups, the strain placed on the environment by consumer goods, economic initiatives designed to retain and attract new companies and, finally, responsibility for mediation in disputes involving different social interests.

The second factor in the crisis concerns the operation of cities as businesses. Cities are now required to play a greater and more efficient role as producers. This has involved organizing and improving the urban infrastructure and providing more and better services. The latter are a vital factor in the success of the enterprise which, broken up into industrial units, becomes an organizational centre for a geographically dispersed network of functions.

Secondly, the city is very often a major employer and producer of social services. Over the past few years, in the urban social sphere, the notions of solidarity and cooperation between the various social groups have been revised as a result of the replacement and integration of hitherto centralized, bureaucratic welfare services (particularly in the case of assistance for those most in need, such as young people and the unemployed).

In all these areas, competition between cities eager to attract new jobs and the most dynamic sectors has intensified owing to the fact that choice of location is now far less constrained. In the context of the urban crisis, the smaller urban centres and rural districts, along with polycentric towns with a more highly differentiated production network, characterized by the close local and social integration of companies, have been most successful; such cities have shown a greater capacity for adaptation and flexibility (e. g. Bologna, Parma, Montpellier, Valencia, the South-East of England, Stuttgart), whilst the rigid conflicts typical

of cities with a strong industrial specialization (Turin, the English Midlands, Genoa, Cardiff, Bilbao, Nîmes, Charleroi, Belfast) have disappeared.

In the smaller urban areas and rural districts, the population and employment have both risen (Germany 5.7% (1976-83); the United Kingdom 4.3% (1974-84); -1% (1978-81), compared with a drop of between 4 and 5% in conurbations). The decline in manufacturing jobs in the centre of conurbations is even more marked, -12% (1976-84) in Germany -22% (1978-81) in the United Kingdom.

Reference is made to a new 'local interventionism', characterized by a pragmatic, creative approach which was not a feature of former administrative practices; local authorities have attempted to deal with problems by removing the financial and political obstacles in their way. Depending on the seriousness of the crisis and the ability of cities to adapt, this approach has had extremely mixed results. The reasons for this state of affairs will be examined below.

The fate of cities is now linked to the development of the services sector; competition in this area has been fierce and there is a danger that investments may be frittered away on facilities and incentives where production services designed to attract modern, dynamic companies, have not been sufficiently developed in line with the market requirements and are not sufficiently specialized.

A 'catch-all' services policy is fraught with risks, particularly in the case of the poorest cities.

In the case of international services aimed at all the high added value sectors associated with advanced infrastructures, cities such as Brussels, Paris, Milan, Frankfurt and London have already established a dominant position; any attempt to compete will be both costly and dangerous.

The second type of services, relating to production, is closely linked to the presence of the vital, dynamic industrial firms which provide their clientele. It is difficult to attract such services in the ab-

sence of these firms; nevertheless, assuming the necessary provision could be made by adopting a specialized objective for a town, it would be possible to attract capital by relying on applied research and a high level of business activity. In this context, attractiveness and competition play a crucial role. Both public services and those in the private sector, which are linked to social needs and local income, are vital to the efficient operation of the entire urban system; they provide a response to the most serious social problems and create jobs, although they cannot easily solve unemployment problems; moreover, they tend to be more effective in the more prosperous towns. Thus, the development of the services sector serves to widen the gap between prosperous and less-successful towns.

What are the various development strategies adopted by cities? Mention is often made of offensive and defensive policies, the former being regarded as desirable and the latter as harmful: this appears to be an unclear distinction which serves little practical purpose, since the policies in question are usually not even aimed at the same social groups. Furthermore, it is sometimes necessary to limit or mitigate the adverse effects, or the pace, of change if the policies are to have any social benefit particularly for those most in need.

In our opinion, these strategies can be summarized with reference to four interconnected guidelines.

The first concerns human and environmental aspects: the quality of the environment is a factor determining a city's development potential. Beset by the ever-growing problems of pollution, congestion and social and individual *malaise*, cities are being forced to reconsider the relationship between the intensive use of space and development. Solutions ensuring that this relationship does not impair the quality of life will be the most successful. A second component of this guideline is the notion of enriching and exploiting cultural potential. The relationship between change and adaptation to new developments and the cultural resources and technical exper-

tise of the local population is extremely close; this expertise is irreplaceable and constitutes the main bottleneck in all these processes.

The second guideline concerns specialization. A high degree of specialization in the service industries will be the inevitable result of these processes; the city authorities should therefore operate from a clearly-defined strategic base, concentrating resources on areas where they are likely to be of most use and where there is sufficient potential.

The third guideline centres on the notion of attractiveness. The ability to attract the social groups, professions and firms which determine the development of modern, dynamic sectors has become one of the keys to success. Attractiveness is also an important factor in the development of the tourist industry in relation to the arts, culture and the quality of life; over the past few years the tourist industry has been responsible for a vast expansion in urban areas.

The fourth guideline relates to competition. It is based on the efficient and rational operation of the urban-services network, flexibility and versatility, the ability to anticipate market trends, and the willingness to abandon bureaucratic administrative methods in favour of a more management-based approach. Marketing and image-building form an integral part of this strategy, their function being to draw the attention of the outside world to such aspects as the efficiency, quality of life and dynamism of the town concerned with a view to attracting new firms and jobs.

Among the various instruments and measures employed by towns in pursuance of these strategies, three main groups can be identified.

In some countries (the United Kingdom and Germany in particular) the local authorities have strengthened their own administrative structures by setting up 'development agencies'; these agencies, which are public bodies run along the lines of a private business, are responsible for coordinating and rationalizing the services offered, image-making and helping firms to solve their locational

problems and obtain incentive premiums; additional functions include organizing job-finding schemes for young people and the unemployed, training, administering employment subsidies for high-calibre researchers and technicians (Bremen, Bradford, Sheffield) and the provision of risk capital.

Intervention in the production sector has proved to be the most significant, yielding some of the most creative and innovative solutions — from privatization to direct services production.

The most interesting solutions, and those most likely to ensure political control and effective management, are based on the principle of partnership, i. e. mixed-investment companies involving both private firms and public bodies; models of this sort are now helping to revitalize the whole concept of State intervention by providing new management methods which do not surrender control to private interests.

Within the context of this strategy, the need for greater local flexibility with regard to taxation and pricing policies is beginning to make itself felt; if a city provides efficient services in response to demand, the market and its citizens will react favourably. Funding these services by means of appropriate charges and taxes, whilst at the same time maintaining redistribution levels, provides the best evidence of the value of the initiative, from both an economic and a political standpoint.

Among the most interesting examples of cooperation between the State and the private sector is the phenomenon of business nurseries (143 in the United States requiring an annual budget of between USD 50 000 and 150 000) which are also widespread throughout France and the United Kingdom. Here, the LEAs (183), each employing an average of two or three people, have also developed and are jointly funded by various sponsors. Almost all of these structures are engaged in setting up businesses, training, promotion and assistance with a view to developing local potential and a non-bureaucratic basis. There have also been many experiments designed to revitalize entire urban areas

through the medium of mixed-investment companies (e. g. Lorraine).

In a second form of intervention, local authorities promote business activities while delegating responsibility for production and management to private firms; the city authorities need to develop their capacity for economic and political planning and technical control by assigning other activities to the private sector. This model also covers cultural and sports-related initiatives, which often involve the reuse and renovation of urban sites and infrastructural measures.

The most successful initiative has undoubtedly been that of the technology parks where local authorities have acted as organizers and promoters in order to provide the necessary research and experimental facilities in association with dynamic advanced technology firms. Physical proximity and a solid infrastructure network are regarded as growth factors in this context.

A very wide range of technology parks were visited; the key to success is to be found in promotional and organizational ability, which is demonstrated by the correct choice of specialization. (Media parks in Stuttgart and Cologne; the Tele-centres in Hamburg and Nimes; other centres specializing in medical and biochemical applications).

The results of these initiatives are generally favourable, although by no means miraculous; as yet an increased input of the intelligence, research and innovation required remains indispensable; nor, for that matter, can we afford to abandon attempts to create a synergism between this increase and production; in this respect, the universities have an important role to play.

The number of parks has increased considerably and has even outstripped demand in many countries, including France, the United Kingdom and Germany; they are widespread throughout the United States and Japan and their numbers are growing in Spain; in Italy, however, they are still something of a rarity.

The typology adopted in this study was chosen because of the need to re-

member that, with all these options, policies aimed at change and adaptations should take account not only of production requirements but also of those interests, needs and groups which the market has either neglected or ignored and make appropriate provision for them (not only at an economic level)

in these processes. The redistributive aspect of these various forms of intervention should not be overlooked; solutions in which the role of the local authorities is to provide and participate, without managing and to administer and delegate would appear to be generally preferable to unrestricted privatization.

Now that the single market is clearly in sight, the challenge facing cities is that of striking a balance between the market and collective interests, between redistribution and business methods, between efficiency and fairness.

The social consequences of the introduction of biotechnologies into the agricultural and agri-food sectors¹

A source of equally unreasonable hopes and fears, the biotechnology revolution is merely the result of the growth of knowledge leading to a greater integration of disciplines, techniques and sectors. The principal characteristic of biotechnologies is their 'diffuse' nature: they are both interdisciplinary and multisectorial, which is what makes it difficult to calculate their overall effects. However complex, they are of undoubted assistance in the solution of such basic world-scale problems as malnutrition, human and animal health and ecology.

The disparity in the available data, the considerable number of assumptions required and the heterogeneous nature of both regional and sectorial situations makes it impossible to give a precise estimate. Basic common sense suggests that it is necessary to rely on a set of specific and provisional considerations, the great advantage of which is to promote constructive thinking.

On this basis, the following observations seem relevant.

1. In areas of market saturation, new technology will lead to an increase in productivity, which is vital for maintaining the competitiveness of economic entities and safeguarding jobs. At the same time, biotechnology will also encourage the production of new inputs in agriculture or industry, based on agricultural raw materials. For that reason, it seems likely that the reduction in the total number of jobs in this sector could be offset by reliance on biotechnologies (e.g. the use of milk for the production of high added-value proteins such as lactoferrins and lactoperoxidases in the pharmaceutical industry; the production of sugar mixtures for the fermentation industry).
2. In expanding sectors like pisciculture where demand exists, and where biotechnologies make possible a high level of competitiveness, they lead to the creation of new jobs.
3. Jobs will also be created through the establishment of new activities in intermediate sectors between agriculture and industry (e.g. man-made seeds).
4. Demand in the processing sectors (agro-industry) is now centring on better quality. This should lead to an increase in agricultural revenues, insofar as the use of biotechnologies will make it possible to achieve this objective at a lower cost (e.g. wine, fruit, flowers).
5. The biotechnologies which modify living organisms could lead to alternative soil use in agriculture and, as a result, to the abandonment of less profitable, surplus or non-labour intensive crops, in areas where there are considerable pockets of unemployment. It will be possible to orientate agricultural production towards new food or industrial markets (e.g. olives, jojoba).
6. A disparity exists between the northern and southern Member States. Whilst the level of advanced research is particularly high in the northern countries, little work has been carried out in such fields as olive-tree cultivation, sheep-farming and wine producing. However, these technologies should make it possible to adapt resources more closely to the environment and stress conditions (salinity, aridity, etc.).²
7. Biotechnologies will make it possible to expand the product range and meet increasingly stringent quality standards in the case of both agricultural and agro-industrial production. There will be new opportunities for the production of high added-value goods.
8. Biotechnologies will increase agricultural openings in agro-industry, enabling the sector to 'take off' by comparison with the agri-foods sector which is close to saturation point.
9. At some future date, the demand for cereals for industrial use (which is extremely low at present) seems likely to increase to a very considerable extent as a result of biotechnological innovations which are currently being perfected.

It should be pointed out that it has so far been impossible to quantify the migratory movements which will be a distinguishing feature of the job market in the next decade. It can, however, be said that the probable decline in the number of jobs requiring few or no qualifications, will undoubtedly be offset, at least in terms of total remuneration, by the growth in the number of jobs with a high cognitive content.

¹ This article summarizes a study on this subject produced on behalf of the Commission of the European Communities by Technotop, A. M. Prieels — January 1989 — 188 pp. + appendices.

² In this respect, reference should be made to the work of the Athens Conference organized by the European Community on 'Biotechnologies and agriculture in Mediterranean countries', June 1986, and J. Herinckx's summary (p. 18).

Finally, as has already been emphasized, it is difficult to measure the power, and even the nature, of the psycho-sociological constraints involved (the weight of tradition, entrenched resistance to new ideas in rural areas, etc.) which, if not directly responsible for the

development process, will undoubtedly limit its speed and extent. From this point of view, and, indeed from that of the need for a new type of farmer, an immediate examination of training methods would seem to be imperative. An intensification of training, completely or partly revised

study courses, retraining networks and a more extensive dissemination of information that is better adapted to agricultural needs will all be required before the end of the century.

Employment policy in the Member States

In response to the wish expressed by Member States' delegations in the Council to receive information on developments in national employment policies, the Commission set up a mutual information system called Misep. The system operates on the basis of contributions from correspondents in public administrations or organizations and a Commission representative.

It provides the relevant authorities in each Member State with regular quarterly information on measures and trends in the employment policies conducted in the other Member States.

Social Europe presents a selection of the information exchanged through Misep in each issue. The Commission accepts no responsibility for the use of this information, which comes from official national sources. It is presented as a summary, on a regular basis to enlighten the reader on the evolution of various aspects linked to national employment policies.

Developments at a glance

Overall developments

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Belgium | Central agreement
Maribel scheme |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Denmark | Organizational restructuring |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Germany | AFG ninth amendment |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Italy | TdL information system |
| <input type="checkbox"/> The Netherlands | Benefits freeze
Unemployment statistics |

Employment maintenance

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Italy | Fiscalization of social security contributions |
|--------------------------------|--|

Aid to the unemployed

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Belgium | Modifying regulations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Spain | Agricultural allowance |
| <input type="checkbox"/> France | CRE jobclubs |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Netherlands | Jobclubs evaluated
Temporary scheme evaluated |

Training

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Ireland | School-leavers' survey
Management training report |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Luxembourg | Financing apprenticeships |
| <input type="checkbox"/> The Netherlands | 'I see!' information system |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Portugal | New vocational training network
Management training for unemployed graduates
Training-employment programme |
| <input type="checkbox"/> United Kingdom | New national training programme |

Job creation

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Belgium | Temporary social security reductions
Public-sector subsidized employment contracts |
| <input type="checkbox"/> The Netherlands | Loan guarantee scheme |

Special categories of workers

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Italy | Iron and steel workers
Youth programme extended |
| <input type="checkbox"/> The Netherlands | LTUs in engineering
Counselling interviews evaluated
LTU scheme extended
Young women in society
Technical occupations for women |

Working time

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Germany | Part-time retirement |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Luxembourg | Sunday working |

Placement

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Germany | SIS placement;
BIZs — careers information |
|----------------------------------|--|

Miscellaneous

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Spain | Pay survey |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Luxembourg | Adoption leave |

Overall developments

Belgium

A new central agreement

A new central agreement for the years 1989-90 was signed on 19 November 1988. This agreement was the result of long and sometimes difficult negotiations. The viewpoints of the trade unions, on the one hand, and the employers, on the other, diverged and concertation got bogged down on several occasions. This caused the government to intervene to take charge of some contentious points notably the protection of trade union representatives, making the pension system more flexible and trade union representation in small and medium sized companies (SMEs).

In the end the social partners were able to reach a draft agreement which was subsequently approved by the Cabinet. The government considered that the agreement provided a sufficient guarantee as regards employment promotion initiatives and noted that besides the priority concern for the promotion of employment in general, some of these initiatives are focused in particular on the vocational integration of young people and the long-term unemployed. Hence the government committed itself to take the legal initiatives necessary to implement the agreement. It also considered that the efforts for promoting employment were sufficient to warrant the unconditional granting of the benefits linked to the 'Maribel' scheme (the flat-rate reduction in social security contributions — see p. 21).

This article simply summarizes the main points of the central agreement.

Protection of employee representatives

The social partners noted that the government has committed itself to tabling a bill on the protection of employee representatives. It will, more specifically, aim to guarantee a more rapid and effective arbitration of disputes as well as the legal protection and guaranteed remuneration of the parties concerned.

Pensions

Tripartite concertation on pension flexibility will be organized focusing on the following aims:

- (i) greater flexibility in pension ages;
- (ii) an examination of the feasibility of retirement on a full State pension from the age of 60.

Trade union representation in SMEs

The social partners noted that the government requested them to examine within the sectors concerned the possibility of trade union representation adapted to the specific needs of the enterprises concerned.

Free collective bargaining

Both parties reiterated their commitment to the principle of free collective bargaining.

Employment and training

Promoting employment in general and that of young people in particular was a prime concern of the two parties. This concern brought them to agree on the following:

(a) Training

The two parties want to make special efforts for training and integrating young people and difficult-to-place jobseekers into working life.

In this context the parties in the first place reiterated their unanimous recommendation of 1986 to reserve the employment fund for supporting initiatives for promoting employment. Furthermore, all employers liable to pay contributions to the social security office (ONSS) will contribute towards funding such initiatives by paying to the fund 0.18% of gross wages in 1989 and 1990 (this contribution has already been introduced by Articles 137 to 139 of the programme law of 30 December 1988). The employment fund will provide support for employment

and training efforts, with the priority target group being the risk groups of jobseekers and in particular young people in compulsory part-time schooling, the poorly qualified unemployed and the long-term unemployed.

(b) Positive action for women

The parties proposed that a unit be set up to make proposals and suggestions for promoting the employment of women.

(c) Career breaks

The parties asked the sectors concerned to explore how applications for career breaks can best be met. The Ministry of Employment and Labour was asked to increase the career break allowance for workers aged 55 years and over who take a half-time career break.

(d) Youth traineeships

The parties especially drew the attention of the sectors and enterprises to creating opportunities for risk groups among young people and more particularly for long-term unemployed young people.

(e) Combined training and employment

The parties agreed to clarify the following points in the form of a CNT (the national labour council) Opinion:

- (i) as regards Royal Decree No 495 of 31 December 1986: maintaining the age conditions, the duration of compulsory training, extension to non-market sectors, simplification of administrative procedures, etc.
- (ii) as regards compulsory part-time schooling: training leading to recognized certificates;
- (iii) as regards the industrial apprenticeship contract: maintaining the current age conditions.

Early retirement

The parties asked the Minister for Employment and Labour to extend to 31 December 1990 the current legal derogations from the principle of the age of early retirement. At the same time they

asked the sectors and the enterprises in which early retirement age is above 58 years to lower this age to 58 years in their agreements for 1989 and 1990.

The parties agreed to conclude a collective agreement within the CNT, the national labour council. This agreement is for enterprises employing at least 10 workers which, for the 1989-90 period, are not covered by a sector or company level CCT (collective agreement) providing for either a system of early retirement or new measures to promote employment. Such new measures include efforts for risk groups among jobseekers, reduction of working time, promotion of career breaks, setting aside of training places for long-term unemployed young people and positive action for women. This supplementary agreement will provide for early retirement from 58 for older workers made redundant as well as for the same early retirement benefit and the same funding method as laid down in CCT No 17 bringing in a supplementary benefit system for certain groups of older workers if they are made redundant (early retirement by agreement).

Older unemployed workers

The parties are agreed upon correcting the very divergent financial situation of (older) unemployed persons according to whether they are unemployed or early retirees.

Without harming the more favourable position of the early retirees, the parties propose to increase unemployment benefits for the unemployed who have reached the age of 50 when they have been unemployed for one year, provided they have been in contributory employment for 20 years. To this end, employers liable to social security contributions will pay BFR 1.5 billion (0.1% of gross wages), which is additional to the BFR 1 billion earmarked in the government's budget.

Minimum income — RMMG

The parties agreed to adapt CCT No 43 in order to increase the minimum average guaranteed monthly income for

workers who have six months' seniority in the enterprise and coverage under CCT No 43 (BFR 500 on 1 July 1989 and BFR 500 on 1 July 1990).

Quality of employment

The parties agreed to make an examination within the CNT of:

- (i) flexibility,
- (ii) the status of shift-workers,
- (iii) part-time working,
- (iv) introducing new technologies.

Maribel scheme

In 1981 the Planning Office brought out an econometric model aimed at improving corporate competitiveness. This model was called 'Maribel' — Model analysing rapid investigation of the Belgian economy. Maribel consisted of a reduction in employers' social charges for blue-collar workers (Articles 35 to 37 of the law of 29 June 1981 laying down the general principles of social security for wage-earners).

During the evaluation of the draft central agreement for 1989-90 (see p. 20), the government confirmed to the social partners that 'from 1 January 1989 and provided the central agreement is approved (which in fact happened on 18 November 1988), the Maribel scheme must be considered as being unconditional'.

This article reviews the implementing regulations and the rates of the Maribel scheme for 1989-90. Amendments brought in by the programme-law of 30 December 1988 (*Moniteur belge*, 5 January 1989) have been included.

Employers concerned

The reduction in employers' social security contributions applies to employers who:

- (i) are liable to contribute to social security on behalf of their workers;

- (ii) employ manual workers other than servants or apprentices;
- (iii) contribute to the *Fonds de fermeture des entreprises* (corporate closure fund).

The following are excluded from claiming the reduction:

- (i) employers not engaged in an industrial or commercial activity;
- (ii) employers falling under certain 'parity commissions';
- (iii) non-profit associations (but sheltered workshops are not excluded);
- (iv) the professions.

Workers entitling to the reduction

The reduction is granted for workers who are at the same time:

- (a) subject to all areas of social security for wage-earners (which means that servants, apprentices, etc. are excluded);
- (b) working more than half of their working time for the same employer.

Rate of the reduction in social security contributions

Reduction of BFR 4 250:
From 1 January 1989 to 31 December 1990 a flat-rate reduction in employers' social security contributions of BFR 4 250 per quarter is granted for every manual worker employed by

- (a) small and medium-sized companies (SMEs) employing fewer than 50 workers on 30 June of the previous year;
- (b) other (large) companies which fall into one of the following three categories:
 - (i) were bound by a collective agreement (at sector or company level) within the framework of the 5-3-3 scheme for 1983-84, 1985-86 and/or 1987-88. (The 5-3-3 agreement provided for a 5% reduction in working time

with an additional recruitment of 3% financed through wage restraint of 3% per year);

- (ii) were recognized in 1987 and/or 1988 as being firms experiencing exceptionally unfavourable circumstances under the terms of Royal Decree No 492 of 31 December 1986 setting out social provisions in favour of employment;
- (iii) are bound for 1989-90 by a collective agreement (concluded within a paritary body, in a single enterprise or a group of enterprises) filed at the Clerk's Office of collective labour relations of the Ministry of Labour and Employment by 1 April 1989 at the latest.

If the collective agreement is concluded within a firm or a group of firms, it must provide for compensatory hiring and a reduction in working time and be approved by the Ministry for Labour and Employment.

- (c) recognized sheltered workshops, whether or not they are bound by a collective agreement in the context of the 5-3-3 scheme.

Reduction of BFR 1 250:

From 1 January 1989 to 31 December 1990 a flat-rate reduction in employers' social security contributions of BFR 1 250 per quarter is granted for every manual worker employed by enterprises which are not bound by a 5-3-3 collective agreement for the years 1989 and 1990 and have never been bound by such an agreement from 1983 to 1988.

Denmark

Restructuring the Danish Ministry of Labour

In December 1988 the Danish Government published its action plan for what has come to be known as the 'de-bureaucratization' of the public sector. The aim is to simplify existing rules and procedures and to obtain a higher degree of efficiency. A number of adminis-

trative bodies and agencies in the central government sector will be abolished. Others will be merged or their activities cut down and a few new bodies will be set up.

The proposals will be implemented in the period up to 1992. They will have a slimming effect on public administration, with about 10 000 jobs disappearing in the public sector. The annual amount saved as a result of this reorganization is estimated to amount to some DKR 3 billion on an annual basis.

Ministry of Labour

One of the proposals affecting the Ministry of Labour is to merge two directorates under the Ministry, namely the Directorate for Labour and the Directorate for Adult Vocational Training. The aim is to obtain a simplification and a decentralization of labour market services.

Today the Ministry of Labour has two separate systems: the adult vocational training system and the public employment service system. The first system provides services to both sides of industry in the field of skills training and skills requirements; the second offers services and guidance in the field of matching labour supply and demand.

The main purpose of the adult vocational training system is to ensure that the skills possessed by the labour force at any one time are updated and in line with the rapidly changing skills requirements of employers. The main task of the public employment services is to prevent and remedy imbalances on the labour market.

A merger of these two systems into a single labour market service will offer a number of advantages. The most important are:

- (a) the services offered to employers and to the unemployed will now be available at a single place and their quality will be improved;
- (b) the knowledge possessed by the public employment service and regional labour market boards (tripartite regional bodies) as regards both firms' demand for labour and skills

requirements and the skills possessed by the unemployed will make it possible to initiate training activities which are more specifically targeted in qualitative as well as in quantitative terms. At the same time, the public employment services will be better equipped to offer labour with the required skills;

- (c) economies can be obtained, both at the central and the local/regional level;
- (d) decentralization will take place so that many of the tasks which are now the responsibility of the Directorate will be delegated to the local public employment offices and to the vocational training schools.

The new structure will consist of a directorate in charge of both the public employment services and the adult vocational training schools, 14 regional public employment services and 23 vocational training schools.

Federal Republic of Germany

Ninth amendment to the Labour Promotion Act (AFG)

The Federal Parliament passed a bill for the ninth amendment to the Labour Promotion Act (AFG) which came into force on 1 January 1989.

The background to this limited consolidation of labour market policy measures is the heavily growing expenditure with which the *Bundesanstalt für Arbeit* (public employment service) has been faced in recent years. A considerable part of the expected deficit will be financed from federal budgetary funds. However, it is not possible for the federal budget to shoulder the whole of the deficit. Since an increase in contributions to the *Bundesanstalt für Arbeit* would result in a rise in ancillary wage costs with adverse effects on employment, an amendment to the Labour Promotion Act was called for.

The ninth amendment regulates the following areas:

1. Henceforth trainees will be granted an allowance for initial vocational training only if the following conditions are met:
 - (a) the trainee no longer lives with his/her parents;
 - (b) the training centre or company is too far away from his/her parents' home (saving: DM 140 million per year).
2. The reimbursement of costs (e.g. course fees, travelling expenses) for participation in a programme of continuing training or retraining which previously constituted a legal claim, henceforth lies within the discretion of the public employment service. However, participants who are unemployed, directly threatened with unemployment or unskilled will have their expenses refunded by and large as before, provided participation in the programme is necessary in order to get a new job (saving: DM 300 million per year).
3. Exclusion of certain vocational training measures from support:
 - (a) Financial help for training measures, in the course of which unemployed persons acquire vocational knowledge and skills through working in a company, is henceforth granted only in cases where these measures lead to a vocational qualification or where training in theoretical knowledge which is of use on the general labour market accounts for at least 25% of the working time. This modification is to help prevent trainees from being used as cheap labour (saving: DM 50 million per year).
 - (b) The subsistence allowance for further training in occupations with skill shortages (73 or 65% of the last net pay) is being done away with and replaced by a 58% loan (saving: DM 10 million per year).
4. Currently the average rate of financial aid for job-creating measures (ABM) is 86%. Henceforth it cannot exceed 75%. In the catchment areas of em-

ployment offices where the unemployment rate is 30% above the federal average, job-creating measures can be subsidized to 90% provided that the majority of the persons employed in the programme are recruited from among the difficult-to-place unemployed. A 100% subsidy can only be granted in these areas if it is necessary for labour and social policy reasons and if the sponsor is financially unable to contribute to the pay. For the Federal Republic as a whole, the 100% subsidy can only account for 15% of all ABM job-creation measures. The minimum rate of the subsidy is 50% (saving: DM 160 million per year).

5. Adaptation subsidy, integration subsidy, tideover allowance:
 - (a) The adaptation subsidy (*Einarbeitungszuschuß*) is designed to offset additional expenditure incurred by the employer through adapting the new employee to his/her work and to compensate for the shortfall in performance of the employee during the adaptation process. The subsidy is reduced from the previous 70 to 50% of the remuneration (saving: DM 50 million per year).
 - (b) The integration subsidy (*Eingliederungsbeihilfe*) which is designed to assist the vocational integration of difficult-to-place unemployed persons is reduced from the previous 70 to 50% of the remuneration (saving: DM 50 million per year).
 - (c) The tideover allowance (*Überbrückungsbeihilfe*) is to help the worker having taken up a new job to secure subsistence until payment of the first wage or salary. Henceforth this allowance is only paid in cases of hardship, with the worker being expected to get an advance wage payment from his/her employer (saving: DM 50 million per year).
6. When granting adaptation subsidies, particular attention is to be focused on workers who, after a period of

bringing up children, want to re-enter the labour market.

7. As regards recipients of short-time allowances, employers could previously claim a contribution towards the health insurance from the public employment service. This contribution is now cancelled (saving: DM 180 million per year).
8. Previously workers over the age of 63 were exempt from the liability to contribute to unemployment insurance. Henceforth they will have to contribute until they are 65 years old. Since unemployed persons from the age of 65 are no longer entitled to claim unemployment benefit, only the employer's contribution will be due for such workers (additional income: DM 170 million per year).
9. If an unemployed person falls ill during the period of drawing unemployment benefit, the time of illness will no longer result in the extension of the period for which unemployment benefit is paid (saving: approximately DM 100 million per year).

Italy

'Teleporto del Lavoro' — data-processing system for the labour market

In accordance with the regulations in force and in particular with Law No 56 of 28 February 1987, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security has recently started a modernization programme. This covers its own organizational structure, both central and decentralized and the instruments for a more efficient active labour policy. The data-processing aspect of the new system has been called 'Teleporto del Lavoro' (TdL).

TdL's main objectives are:

- (a) to set up an efficient data-processing structure able to link up with that of the supervisory bodies (national social insurance institute (INPS); national institute for insurance against industrial injuries (Inail), etc.) and to exchange data and information with other national and Community databanks;

- (b) to put in place the *osservatorio del mercato del lavoro* for monitoring the labour market in conjunction with the regions, the local authorities, the trade-union and employers' organizations and the other public and private bodies concerned;
- (c) to increase the activities of promoting work and developing employment, particularly in the Mezzogiorno;
- (d) to obtain complete and up-to-date information on all aspects of the labour market by means of advanced technology;
- (e) to collect all data able to help obtain a full picture of the nature and extent of unemployment;
- (f) to develop the activities of the labour inspectorate, especially as regards counselling for small and medium-sized companies and coordinating actions related to safety, social security and taxation.

TdL will thus constitute the basis for the active labour market policy in the country. It is needed to be able to plan social policies and to check the effects of various legislative measures dealing with work, taking into account at the same time the behaviour and attitudes of the persons concerned, in the Community and international contexts. It will also constitute an indispensable instrument for the regional employment commissions as well as for regions and the other local government bodies. In preparing employment policy measures and vocational guidance and training initiatives, these bodies must coordinate their actions and join forces with the central government.

Finally, TdL will provide all interested parties with timely and reliable data and information so that effective and suitable choices can be made. These parties include trade unions, employers' associations, study and research centres and associations as well as individual workers and groups of workers.

Thus, by means of the total range of audiovisual media, TdL must be able to communicate with anybody in the country and outside. It will consist of three integrated sub-systems:

- (i) 'Data sharing system' involving both the central and the decentralized units (regional, provincial and local labour offices and labour inspectorates) in the management;
- (ii) 'Office automation', required to guarantee the smooth functioning of all levels of the Ministry;
- (iii) 'Telecommunications' consisting of regional and local networks for direct communication between the various units of the Ministry and with the other public and private (including Community) bodies and agencies.

The Ministry of Labour is required to carry out the project as soon as possible and in any case not later than 1991.

The Netherlands

Minimum wage and benefits

A bill has been put before parliament to freeze the minimum wage and social benefits in 1989.

The government considers that a policy of moderating wage costs and controlling public expenditure is necessary to reduce unemployment and continue economic recovery. This is the context for the proposal to maintain in 1989, as in previous years, the minimum wage and social benefits at their existing level.

Freezing the minimum wage will, according to the government, moreover contribute to the maintenance and growth of a number of jobs for the lowest paid. Unemployment is to a large extent concentrated in groups having a low level of basic education and pay. Freezing the minimum wage will have a positive effect on employment and will benefit above all this group.

Modifying unemployment figures

Following estimates of the central statistical office (CBS) the number of registered unemployed in the third quarter of 1988 amounted to an average of 428 000 whereas the number in the first two quarters amounted to 484 000 and 409 000 respectively. Two sources have

been used to compile these figures: registrations at the employment offices and the CBS labour-force survey. The CBS estimates are, on the request of the Minister for Employment and Social Affairs, presented in the form of three-month averages.

For the period between November 1987—January 1988 and February—April 1988, the CBS estimates appear to be some 33% lower than the corresponding official figures for unemployment. These official figures are solely based on registrations at the employment offices. As of the March—May 1988 period, the estimates of the number of registered unemployed are 37 to 38% lower than the official unemployment figures. The drop in registered unemployment of 75 000 between the first and second quarters is thus twice as much as the drop in the official unemployment figures. This last figure fell by 34 000 from 698 000 to 664 000 in the period in question. The 19 000 increase in the numbers of registered unemployed between the second and third quarters is of roughly the same order of magnitude as the increase in the official unemployment figure (22 000).

With the data now available it is still not yet possible to ascertain the extent to which the difference between the drop in the official and the new CBS unemployment count can be attributed to developments which are seasonally related, or others.

The statistical imprecision of the estimates now published by the CBS of the actual numbers of registered unemployed is relatively great. This statistical imprecision should be reduced by 40% in the September to November 1988 period. To achieve this, the sample structure and the sample size of the labour-force survey will be adapted.

Employment maintenance

Italy

Fiscalization of social security contributions and relief in contributions in the Mezzogiorno

As regards fiscalization of social security contributions, Decree-Law No 548 of 30 December 1988 lays down that for the wage payment period between 1 December 1988 and 30 November 1989 employers will be granted a monthly reduction of the employers' contribution to the national health service of:

- (a) LIT 108 500 for all persons employed by industrial and craft firms operating in the manufacturing and mining industries, engineering companies and shipping companies operating on international routes;
- (b) a further LIT 30 000 for all persons employed by firms located in the Mezzogiorno;
- (c) LIT 42 000 for all persons employed by hotels, public commercial concerns, travel agents, holiday clubs for tourists, commercial firms;
- (d) LIT 133 000 for all persons employed in the agricultural sector with the exception of those in the Mezzogiorno as they benefit from other reliefs.

A monthly reduction of LIT 56 000 will be granted until 30 November 1989 to certain firms located in the Mezzogiorno. To qualify, the firms are required to hire, after 30 November 1988, young persons up to the age of 29 or women on an open-ended employment contract in addition to the workforce employed at that date.

Expenditure for implementing this provision of the Decree-Law is estimated at LIT 5 732 billion for 1989.

Decree-Law No 548 also covers relief in contributions to the National Social Security Institute for industrial firms operating in the Mezzogiorno. It extends the relief until 31 May 1989.

Expenditure for applying the provision on relief in contributions is estimated at LIT 3 865 billion.

Aid to the unemployed

Belgium

Changes in unemployment regulations

Besides the modifications introduced to humanize unemployment checks, several other provisions of the unemployment regulations (Royal Decree of 20 December 1963) have been revised during the last few months. This article briefly reviews the most important modifications, most of which came into force on 1 January 1989.

Waiting period

Young persons who have just completed their studies and have not found a job are only entitled to retaining pay (*allocation d'attente*) or unemployment benefit after having completed a waiting period (*stage d'attente*).

Until now, this waiting period was interrupted during the period of military service or non-military service for conscientious objectors. From 1 January 1989 on, this period is treated as equivalent to a period of registration as job-seeker and counts as a waiting period (Royal Decree of 4 October 1988 — *Moniteur belge*, 5 October 1988).

Voluntary part-time workers

The rights of voluntary part-time workers under the unemployment insurance system have been significantly modified by the Royal Decree of 3 October 1988 (*Moniteur belge*, 6 October 1988).

Contrary to the provisions of the previous regulations, these workers can from now on draw unemployment benefit for an unlimited period of time when they lose their job. However, to be able to draw benefit, the following conditions must be fulfilled:

- (i) the system of voluntarily accepted part-time work under which the unemployed person has been employed normally consists of, on average, at least an 18-hour working week or at least half the number of weekly working hours normally worked on average by a worker employed full-time in a similar function in the same enterprise;
- (ii) the unemployed person must, as under the previous system, have worked a sufficient number of days during the reference period; however, from now on account will be taken of all working days, including days of less than three hours.

For the computation of the benefits, a distinction must be made between 'partial unemployment' for the duration of the contract and the right to benefit when the contract ends.

During the duration of the employment contract the worker is, in the case of 'part-time unemployment' (short-time working), entitled to benefits for those hours when he is usually employed. The number of half-days entitled to compensation is obtained by the formula

$$\frac{P \times 12}{S}$$

where P represents the number of hours of 'partial unemployment' in the period in question and S the number of hours of a full-time working week. When the contract is terminated, the worker is entitled to unemployment benefits for the hours he was usually employed. The number of half-days per week entitled to compensation is obtained by the formula

$$\frac{Q \times 12}{S}$$

where Q represents the weekly average number of hours of work and S the number of hours of work worked on average by a worker employed full-time in a similar function in the same enterprise.

Supplement for years of service

The Royal Decree of 13 January 1989 provides for payment of a supplement for

years of service to older unemployed persons provided certain conditions are met. The decree applies to fully unemployed persons in receipt of benefit who have been unemployed for more than one year and who:

(a) can prove 20 years of contributory employment (or employment-equivalent days with the exception of those of full unemployment);

(b) are not drawing a supplementary benefit paid under the system of early retirement by agreement;

(c) have not, though fulfilling all the eligibility conditions for early retirement by agreement, refused early retirement or waived the supplementary allowance.

The amounts vary according to the categories of the unemployed and age. They take the form of flat-rate benefits for heads of households while for single people or cohabitants they take the form of a percentage. Moreover, the minimum benefits paid to the unemployed persons in question have also been increased and the maximum amounts adjusted.

Increased amounts

Head of household	Single person	Cohabitee
50—54 years 95 BFR/day	5%	5%
55—65 years 115 BFR/day	12.5%	7.5%

New monthly rates

Head of household	Single person	Cohabitee
50—54 years		
minimum 26 286	19 136	16 380
maximum 31 096	21 450	19 084
55—65 years		
minimum 28 806	22 360	17 394
maximum 31 616	25 038	20 280

modifications were introduced designed gradually to align this transitional scheme with the general unemployment protection system.

For 1989, Royal Decree No 1585/88 of 29 December 1988 maintains the transitional scheme of access to the allowance which has been in force in 1987 and 1988. It brings in a significant change to the system in that it enables certain casual agricultural workers over the age of 55 to be eligible for benefit. The persons in question are those who do not meet the requirement, in accordance with the general regulations, of contributory employment for a minimum of 60 days during the previous year but satisfy three specific conditions:

- (i) they have contributed as casual workers to the Special Agricultural Social Security System for at least six years of their working life;
- (ii) they have been receiving the allowance continuously since 1984;
- (iii) and, at the moment of the claim, they satisfy all conditions, except that of age, entitling them to some retirement pension or other.

The aim of this modification is to bring the regulations on the agricultural allowance into line with those governing the unemployed over 55 under the general scheme. Such persons are in fact considered as a group who are particularly hard hit by unemployment. As such they need special protection. This consists of guaranteeing them their entitlement to the agricultural allowance until they reach retirement age, even if they have not the minimum number of days of contributory employment required to be entitled to the allowance in accordance with the general regulations.

The general rules fixing the duration of payment of the allowance at a maximum of 180 days during a 12-month period do not apply for these beneficiaries. For the unemployed over 55 who are entitled to the allowance in accordance with the special provisions outlined above, the maximum duration will be equivalent to that recognized the previous year.

Spain

Extending the 'agricultural allowance' for the unemployed over 55

The *subsídio agrario* (agricultural allowance) is an unemployment allowance scheme providing financial assistance for casual agricultural workers in case of unemployment. It was introduced in 1984 and applies only to Andalusia and Extremadura. In these two autonomous communities the rate of unemployment of casual workers is above the national average and relatively higher than that of other agricultural regions.

To be eligible for assistance under the *subsídio agrario* scheme (the legal

system of which is described in the Basic Information Report), the unemployed person must have paid contributions to the Special Agricultural Social Security System for at least 60 days during the 12 months preceding unemployment. However, over the six years in which the system has been in operation, access to the allowance has been temporarily facilitated for workers who, having been beneficiaries of the former 'community employment' system, did not satisfy the contributory requirement laid down within the general framework.

This transitional scheme has been maintained due to the beneficial effects which its application generated as regards the coverage of the unemployment situation; however, subsequent

France

Jobclubs

ANPE, the national employment agency, has followed other countries' employment services (Canada, UK, Sweden) in launching, in 1989, a programme for setting up jobclubs, termed *cercles de recherche d'emploi*.

The introduction of these jobclubs demonstrates the willingness of the French Ministry of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training to develop and diversify its services for coaching job-seekers in job-hunting techniques and putting them into contact with enterprises. The aim is to reinforce the activities of the public placement service for jobseekers who have already had a job for whom an ill-structured job search means that they run the risk of becoming long-term unemployed.

Since 1987, pilot jobclubs have been experimented with in three ANPE regions: Poitou-Charentes, Aquitaine and Midi-Pyrénées. Their results were similar to those of other countries.

In 1989, a significant budget item will enable ANPE to extend jobclubs nationwide and gradually to equip 63 of them.

For the rapid construction of this programme, ANPE is in the first place drawing on the competences it has developed in approaches accompanying job search on the local labour market. The basic material for designing the original approach is provided by three recent sets of experience:

- (i) the everyday actions of canvassing for vacancies and matching job-seekers;
- (ii) running coaching sessions for job-hunting techniques; and, more recently,
- (iii) intensive job-search workshops conducted by 52 technical teams for redeployment established within the framework of the 1986 national accord on conversion agreements.

But ANPE is also drawing on the work of UK and Canadian employment services' teams as they have been pre-

sented at symposiums, in documentation exchanges (Arthur Mills' guide for the Canadian jobclub counsellor) and during study visits to other services (meeting with UK jobclubs).

Jobclubs objectives and members

The aim of a jobclub is to enable each member to:

- (a) find the best opening possible, as quickly as possible, by means of learning and effectively applying appropriate behaviours and an active and structured method of job search; and
- (b) develop mutual information and support networks both within the group and with the environment.

To become a member of a jobclub a person must:

- (a) be a jobseeker who has not found work after having been registered at ANPE for at least three months; or
- (b) be long-term unemployed, particularly those leaving a training programme and those who do not come under a special training programme.

A majority of members must be over 25 and have had work experience.

Members must also:

- (a) have a clear idea of what they want to do, which is compatible with their experience and the employment market. ANPE selects from among these persons those who really need personalized and active help in their job search;
- (b) be immediately available to work full time on this activity;
- (c) volunteer to join by signing a written commitment. Members of a jobclub retain their status as jobseeker.

Methods

The methods used have been approved by the managing board of ANPE. They differ from the training provided for

job search, by emphasizing the action orientation: it is not just learning how to look for work but actually looking for work.

The jobclub provides an intensive learning programme in behaviours which are adapted to job search. Phases for acquiring knowledge alternate with those for applying this knowledge over an average of 80 hours.

A session comprises 10 to 15 participants, making up, in as far as possible, an occupationally, socially and personally heterogeneous group. Each participant can draw on the services of the jobclub until he/she has found a job or is re-orientated towards other services.

In as far as possible, jobclubs must ensure their own renewal, replacing members leaving to take up employment with new recruits.

Jobclub members are provided by ANPE with their basic needs (video equipment, photocopying facilities, secretariat services, telephone and occupational documentation). The premises are accessible to members outside planned working sessions. Members can go about their own business there using the available equipment. They can also participate in collective information sessions.

Specific ways and means for the organization and workings have been drawn up. The jobclub is considered as an extension of the action possibilities of the local agency. This means that the jobclub:

- (a) is physically located near the offices of the local agency to which it is attached;
- (b) has its activities integrated into the action plans of the local agency; and
- (c) collaborates closely with the local agency.

As the agency entrusted with implementing the scheme, ANPE can itself run the jobclub or do so jointly with other partners on the basis of a schedule of conditions. When outside partners are drawn on, joint ANPE- outsiders' teams are preferred.

ANPE preparations

A large-scale programme of training those running jobclubs is under way. It foresees training in running jobclubs for all future ANPE staff concerned (i.e. some 250 persons) as well as meeting possible requests from outside agents.

Arrangements are being made to follow up and evaluate jobclubs in 1989. These would collect the greatest possible information on the operations and results of jobclubs so that possible adjustments could be made in 1990.

Thus it would seem that, for ANPE, the jobclub is a means for increasing the placement chances of groups who need more intensive help in their job search. This is being done by facilitating the links between the various socio-economic actors in an area of employment and putting jobseekers in direct contact with enterprises.

The Netherlands

Evaluating jobclubs

The Policy Research Foundation has completed research commissioned by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment on the working of *sollicitatieclubs*, or jobclubs. They would appear to be rather effective, with an average of 65% of the participants finding a job within nine weeks.

A jobclub is a group of unemployed persons who, after a short training period, spend half of each day searching — under supervision — for a job. The aim is to help the participants find the best possible job as quickly as possible. Participants must in principle have been unemployed for more than half a year. The first clubs were started in five towns in September 1987. In the mean time approximately 30 jobclubs have been set up.

Overall, during the period examined, 68% of the participants have been able to find a job through club membership (a further 3% finding work through job search started previously); 7% took up various types of retraining or further

training. Thus, 78% of participants experienced a positive outcome (work or training).

The quality of the jobs found by the participants is generally high. The study found that in 84% of the cases, the work was in keeping with what the jobseeker was looking for. In 79% of the cases permanent work was found or temporary work with the prospect of extensions. Of all the participants who got a job, 87% were still employed three months after leaving the jobclub.

A relatively high proportion of jobclub participants were long-term unemployed. But some of them (17%) had been registered as jobseekers for less than six months. As a result of the recruitment problems amongst other things, the duration of registration criterion is not always strictly handled.

The unemployed with a low level of education (at the most, primary education) and the unemployed over 40 years of age are proportionately less often members of jobclubs. The unemployed with a commercial or administrative occupation are, on the other hand, overrepresented.

The researchers consider that the most important reason for the success of jobclubs is that the unemployed are urged to go about looking for a job intensively. Training and supervision play an important role in this respect. Training enables the participants to acquire a number of skills and to enhance their self-confidence. Supervisors act as stimulators and 'listening posts'. Group work is also important, breaking through the isolation of the jobseeker and providing opportunities to exchange experiences and job vacancies. Good relations with the employment office also seem propitious for the effectiveness of a jobclub. Employment offices draw participants' attention to jobclubs, receive notification of job vacancies and refer participants to career guidance or training.

The researchers make some remarks on a number of points about how the functioning of jobclubs can be further improved. They believe that by making clubs better known, improving canvass-

ing, ensuring that training and supervision are more practically orientated and sharpening up the monitoring of progress, it should be possible to ensure that jobclubs continue to help 65% of the participants to find work.

Evaluating the temporary scheme of municipal employment initiatives

Municipalities (*gemeenten*) have taken up in great numbers the temporary scheme of municipal employment initiatives. The attitudes at the local level towards the scheme which were critical in the beginning have become positive. The more the employment initiative develops, the greater is the willingness of young unemployed persons themselves to join the scheme. This can be seen from a study of the implementation of the temporary scheme.

In recruiting young persons a good half of the municipalities draw on the stock of the employment office. The social services are also often consulted. Young people are also contacted through local newspapers and radio stations, posters and brochures. Articles in newspapers presenting the experiences of young persons with the scheme seem to be particularly effective and bring about spontaneous enrolments.

At the time of the research on 1 March 1988, 2 594 young people had been placed on the scheme, of whom 69% were girls. The proportion of non-natives is 14%, which is in line with the minority representation in the target group.

Two-thirds of the young persons placed had had the lowest level of secondary education, half of them having left school without a school-leaving certificate. One-third had had a middle-level education (HAVO, VWO, MEAO), and two-thirds of these had left without a school-leaving certificate. This meant that almost 60% of young people placed had not completed their education.

The profile of the young people placed fits the composition of the target group, as this is recorded at the local level: many girls and youths with low

education. The municipalities also state that it is above all the motivated young people whom they have been able to place. They tend to characterize this as the top end of the target group. This does not mean that a relatively large number of young people from minority groups have not been placed, while some municipalities have succeeded in placing young people with deficits as regards education or social aptitudes.

Municipalities have on average entrusted three staff members on one and a half jobs with implementing the scheme. It is difficult to recruit young people living in caravans, youths from marginal groups, youths who speak no Dutch and youths who have attended special schools. The municipalities consider that more time and human resources as well as knowledge of these groups are needed to obtain insight into the wishes and the possibilities of these groups of youths.

Despite their overall positive appreciation of the scheme, the municipalities pointed to a number of bottlenecks. At the beginning of the scheme, cooperation with the employment offices was not always good. Moreover, the training provision for the participating young people was problematic in many cases. Besides the placement of young people in a guaranteed job, training is an important supportive element to improving the labour market prospects of young people.

developments of second-level school-leavers from the 1986-87 academic year. In line with the practice in previous years, almost a full year was allowed to elapse before conducting the survey. This time lapse allows a more settled picture to emerge in relation to school-leavers entering the labour market or continuing in further education. The results are based on a national sample of 1 981 school-leavers from an estimated total of 66 500 students who left second-level education in 1986/87.

The main findings are that an estimated 28 500 school-leavers (42.8%) were in employment, while 20 300 (30.5%) were engaged in further education. A further 9 000 (13.6%) were still seeking their first job, while 3 400 (5.1%) were unemployed after having had a job and lost it. Emigration accounted for 4 800 (7.3%) of school-leavers and 500 (0.8%) were unavailable for work (through being engaged on home duties, or through illness or other causes).

Compared to the previous year's survey, the findings show some improvement in the unemployment situation with unemployment among school-leavers falling by 4.2%. The proportion of school-leavers in employment also decreased slightly (0.7%). The number going on to further education increased by 2.4% while emigration rose from 4.2% to 7.3% between 1987 and 1988.

Advisory Committee on Management Training

In January 1989 the Minister for Labour published the report of the Advisory Committee on Management Training. The report, 'Managers for Ireland — The case for the development of Irish Managers', emphasizes the general lack of commitment to management development among all types of organizations in Ireland in both the public and the private sectors. The Committee's research showed that in 1987:

- (a) over one-fifth of the top 1 000 companies either spent nothing on management development, or do not know how much they spent;

- (b) over half the top 1 000 companies spent less than IRL 5 000 on management development;
- (c) public-service organizations spent more than the average for all private-sector companies, but well below the level for large companies;
- (d) foreign-owned companies spent on average 50% more than Irish-owned companies.

This major weakness underlies all six critical issues identified by the Committee as areas requiring immediate attention. The six issues are:

- (i) lack of commitment to management development among all types of organizations;
- (ii) lack of understanding of how to develop managers;
- (iii) absence of common core of relevant business knowledge and skills among people who reach management through a diversity of routes;
- (iv) particular problems of small businesses in implementing policies for the development of their managers;
- (v) lack of clarity as to the State's role in funding management training;
- (vi) separate training of public-service and private-sector managers.

These six issues impact on and are influenced by each other and the Committee's recommendations to address them are intended to reflect this interdependence and to provide context and direction for the development of future management training activity in Ireland. In brief, the Committee's broad recommendations for dealing with the issues mentioned above are:

- (a) Promotion of the need for management development to be achieved *inter alia* through a short-life action group for management development.
- (b) Guidelines for management development (drawn up by the Committee) to be used by all organizations.
- (c) Guidelines for business education (drawn up by the Committee) to be used by educational institutions.

Training

Ireland:

School-leavers' survey 1988

The Department of Labour's annual school-leavers' survey was published in December 1988.

The survey was carried out in May and June 1988. It examines the career

- (d) Assistance for small businesses in drawing up and implementing management development programmes.
- (e) Funding of post-experience management training on the principle of user pays, with State assistance channelled to users rather than providers and to areas of national interest which cannot be provided by the market.
- (f) Integration of the management training activities of the Irish Management Institute and the Institute of Public Administration.

The Committee believes that the joint implementation over time of all its recommendations by the public service and the private sector will contribute to the development of higher standards of management in Ireland and ensure economic and business success.

working life (in industries and occupations which have a structural shortage of manpower) as wage-earners with an employment contract or as apprentices with an apprenticeship contract.

As regards both the aids for promoting apprenticeships and the guidance premiums, the definition of trades and industries eligible for receiving aids is left to the Minister for Labour who decides after consultation with the national employment commission.

The aim of the GDR of 29 August 1988 is to define the system for granting the financial aids to employers and to apprentices.

The new system brings in, on the one hand, a standard system of aid for all employers and harmonizes, on the other, the apprenticeship premium system for all apprentices. Moreover, it makes a distinction between the common law system and the special system designed for promoting apprenticeships in certain trades and professions.

paid to the apprentice trained in a trade or profession which is experiencing a shortage of manpower or apprenticeship positions.

2. Concerning the apprenticeship aids paid to the apprentice, the following should be noted:

- (a) the generalization of the right of every apprentice to an apprenticeship premium of LFR 18 000 for each apprenticeship year, i.e. a monthly premium of LFR 1 500;
- (b) the introduction of a supplementary system for trades and professions experiencing a shortage, consisting of the payment of an additional monthly premium which can be drawn concurrently of LFR 28 800 for each apprenticeship year, i.e. an additional LFR 2 400 per month (the total monthly premium being LFR 3 900). The premiums are covered by the employment fund.

3. The Minister for Labour draws up and publishes each year, after consultation with the national employment commission, a list of the trades and professions which are characterized by a structural manpower deficit or by a shortage of apprenticeship positions which are eligible for the additional aid and premium.

4. The aids and the premiums are paid per apprenticeship year. Payment is made from the employment fund on the basis of a detailed statement submitted by the employer to the employment administration, before 1 January of the year following that during which the apprenticeship year which opens up the right to the aid or premium ended.

By agreement concluded with the Minister for Labour, the professional/trade chambers can be associated in the procedures for introducing claims for and paying out financial aids.

The Minister for Labour can agree to the employment fund giving its financial support to public information and awareness campaigns run by representative employers' organizations for promoting apprenticeship.

Luxembourg

Financial support for apprenticeships

(Grand-Ducal ruling (GDR) of 29 August 1988 setting out the conditions and modalities for financial support for promoting apprenticeships)

The amended Law of 27 July 1978 concerned various measures in favour of the employment of young persons. It dealt among other matters with:

- 1. Aids for promoting apprenticeships: In order to encourage employers to take on apprentices, the Minister for Labour can draw on the employment fund to provide financial aids; the eligibility conditions and modalities are laid down by Grand-Ducal ruling.
- 2. Guidance premiums: The law authorizes the Minister for Labour to provide, by drawing on the employment fund, guidance premiums for young persons who enter

Main themes of the GDR

Generally speaking, the new system strengthens the system of financial aids for promoting apprenticeship and considerably extends its scope.

1. As regards the financial aids for promoting apprenticeships paid to employers training an apprentice, the following should be noted:

- (a) the generalization of the taking over of the employer's social security contribution by the employment fund;
- (b) the generalization of the taking over of 8% of the apprenticeship allowance by the employment fund;
- (c) the taking over by the employment fund of 12% of the apprenticeship allowance in the case of apprenticeship in the craft sector;
- (d) the taking over of an additional 12% of the apprenticeship allowance

The Netherlands

'I see!' Information system

'I see!' is a computerized information system on training, occupations and labour market data which became operational in spring 1989. It has been designed as an instrument to provide users with easy access to standardized information on available studies and career openings. The users are 'intermediaries' such as careers masters, careers advisers, psychologists and regional consultants.

The modules

'I see!' is modular in structure with information covering training, careers and occupations, and labour market data. The training module consists of information on training and studies in general and on specific programmes including the following data:

- (a) name,
- (b) costs,
- (c) dates and duration,
- (d) requirements as regards previous education,
- (e) training level,
- (f) type of studies (e.g. day or part-time training),
- (g) possible selection criteria for access to training,
- (h) final examinations,
- (i) name, address and telephone number of the training institute,
- (j) as well as occupations opened up or possibilities of further training.

Information is provided about all levels of training in the Netherlands, from adult education to university education.

The occupations module comprises information on a great number of occupations and careers at all levels:

- (a) the sector to which the occupation belongs,
- (b) the major components of the occupation,

- (c) the aids used in the occupations,
- (d) the requirements of the occupation as regards previous training, physical and social skills,
- (e) the working conditions,
- (f) pay,
- (g) other related occupations.

The module on labour-market data includes information on forecasts for a number of training clusters and occupational categories covering employment perspectives, replacement issues and trends in supply.

Updating and extending

During the production phase of the first edition of 'I see!', consideration will be given to further dissemination: short courses (also at the regional and local levels); more information on occupations; and disseminating more broadly information on the labour market for training and occupations. Information will subsequently be added on more training and further occupations. Future expectations about the labour market module will be honed down on a more disaggregated level.

In addition to these modules providing data, others should help in making and following up on choices. These will be further developed for an expanded edition of the system. This second edition is foreseen, together with the first update, in spring 1990. Efforts are being made to provide subscribers with an update of data at least once a year.

The system is being made available on a CD-ROM for which a CD player is necessary which can be plugged into any PC.

Four Dutch ministries are contributing to the 'I see!' project: education and science, social affairs and employment, agriculture and fisheries, and economic affairs. They have jointly established an interministerial steering committee which is responsible for the coordination and progress of 'I see!'. In the longer run, 'I see!' should be lodged in a national service centre.

Portugal

Vocational training schools

Decree-Law 26/89 of 21 January 1989 creates a network of non-advanced vocational education schools. Initiated especially at the local level, they are the outcome of a joint initiative of the Ministries of Education and of Employment and Social Security.

The aim on the one hand is to strengthen the various approaches to vocational training and, on the other, to reinvigorate vocational education, both with a view to facilitating the vocational integration of young people and to providing a response to regional and local training needs.

The vocational schools to be established outside the formal educational system can be either public or private. The prime purpose is to contribute to training young persons who have at least six years' basic schooling. The schools will prepare them for working life either by initial vocational training or by providing vocational qualifications. The outcome is that these young people will have the right to a certificate of a level equivalent to the last three years of secondary education which would enable them to enter higher education.

All proposals as regards creating vocational schools must be submitted to the Ministry of Employment and Social Security. Units which could put themselves forward are in particular the *autarquias*, cooperatives, enterprises, trade unions, associations, foundations and social assistance bodies.

Management training for graduates

To facilitate the integration of graduates and those holding post-secondary diplomas in the labour market, and given the need to overcome the problems of adapting academic training to the world of work, IEFP (the vocational training and employment institute) is launching a specific job-creation programme for graduates.

This programme is called FIQ after the initials for the Portuguese words for

'training (formação) and integration (integração) of executives (quadros)'. It provides places for 400 unemployed persons who have graduated in the last three years and are aged up to 35 years. It seeks to provide an extension to existing employment policy measures such as FIEQ and Coopemprego. It intends to facilitate the vocational integration of executives through theoretical training and a practical in-company learning period. The total duration will be of 12 or nine months depending on whether the persons have an intermediate diploma (titulares com cursos médios) or a higher education degree. In addition to some social benefits, participants receive a grant during the training period. This is paid in totality by IEFP during the first four months and 50% thereafter, the remainder being covered by the enterprises.

On completion of the training period, enterprises which hire the trainees under an indefinite employment contract while at the same time creating new jobs receive a non-repayable grant. This grant amounts to 12 times the national minimum wage for each new job created.

IJOVIP — Integrating young people into working life

In March 1989, IEFP launched a training-employment programme for a nine-month period. Its purpose is to prepare young persons aged 18 to 25 with at least the level of compulsory schooling for working life.

This programme will cover some 9 000 young people. Priority will be given to those looking for their first job. Training will be both theoretical and practical within public or private enterprises in manufacturing industry, the services, agriculture, forestry, fishing, new technologies and environmental protection.

This activity requires there to be a vocational training contract binding the young person to the managing unit as well as an agreement between IEFP and this unit. Trainees receive a monthly grant equivalent to the national minimum wage as well as other social benefits. The costs of training are covered in the

main by IEFP but partially also by the employers.

United Kingdom

Employment for the 1990s

A White Paper entitled 'Employment for the 1990s' was published by the UK Government on 5 December 1988. It identifies the most significant barrier to job growth in the 1990s as the lack of skills. A new approach to training is outlined which will establish a training and enterprise framework to meet Britain's key employment needs.

The White Paper sets out a number of key training objectives to be met over the next three years. The immediate priorities are:

- (i) to invite local employer-led groups to establish a national network of training and enterprise councils to plan and deliver training as well as to promote and support the development of small businesses at local level;
- (ii) to set up a national training task force to assist in the development of new local training arrangements and to promote greater investment by employers in the skills of the workforce;
- (iii) to launch the business growth training programme to help companies develop a training strategy to meet their business objectives;
- (iv) to consult with the remaining statutory industrial training boards and organizations representing employers in their sectors with a view to drawing up an agreed programme and timetable for becoming independent non-statutory bodies;
- (v) to take immediate steps to determine the future of the Skills Training Agency and to take professional advice on the feasibility of moving into the private sector.

Training and Enterprise Councils

The existing involvement of business will be extended by inviting local groups

led by employers to form Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs).

TECs will have four key functions:

- (i) they will examine the local labour market, assessing key skill needs, prospects for expanded job growth and the adequacy of existing training opportunities;
- (ii) they will draw up a plan for securing quality training and enterprise development that meets both government guarantees and community needs;
- (iii) they will manage training programmes for young people, for unemployed people and for adults requiring new knowledge and technical retraining; and
- (iv) they will be responsible for ensuring the development and provision of training and other support for small businesses relevant to local needs.

At least two-thirds of TEC members should be employers at top management level drawn from the private sector. Others on the Councils will include senior figures from local education, training and economic development activities and from voluntary bodies and trade unions who support the aims of the Council.

Under the new system, TECs will subcontract training and small business support activities to local providers in the same way as the Training Agency area offices currently contract with training managers and managing agents. TECs are expected to evolve gradually over a period of three to four years with the first Councils established before the end of 1989.

The Training Agency

At national level the main authority concerned with training promotion and development will be the government's Training Agency. The Training Agency will continue to operate as did its predecessor, the Training Commission. In addition it will also take on some of the small firms and enterprise functions of the Employment Department.

The Training Agency will have the following tasks:

- (i) to encourage employers to develop the skills and experience of their employees of all ages;
- (ii) to provide and encourage appropriate training for young people when they leave full-time education;
- (iii) to help the long-term unemployed acquire the skills and experience that will help them find regular employment;
- (iv) to help the education system become more relevant to working life and more responsive to changing demands and opportunities in the labour market;
- (v) to ensure that the distinctive needs of the self-employed and small firms for training, counselling and other support are met.

National training task force

Employers will also play a key role at the national level. A national training task force will be created to assist in the establishment and development of the new Training and Enterprise Councils. It will also help to convey to employers the importance of investing in the skills of the working population. The task force will have up to 12 members, two-thirds of whom will be drawn from leading figures in industry and commerce.

Quality and standards

The National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) was set up in 1986 to focus on the developments of a system of nationally recognized qualifications which both embodies the levels of competence required by employers and allows for maximum mobility.

Industrial training boards

Industrial training boards were established in 1964. Despite progress, they have not succeeded in raising the standard and quantity of training in the sectors they covered; in particular, they have failed to make any significant impact on the problem of training and retraining for

people already in employment. The seven remaining boards have therefore been asked to make plans for moving as quickly as possible to become independent non-statutory training organizations. These would be fully supported by employers in their sectors and would be free to generate income from subscriptions and charges for services or products.

Skills Training Agency

The White Paper points out that the Skills Training Agency must become a more competitive and viable training business which is able to compete on equal terms with other training providers and that this is more likely to occur if it were to move into the private sector. The feasibility of such a move is now being studied.

Programmes

(a) Employment training (ET)

The Training and Enterprise Councils will become responsible for ET, the new programme for the training of unemployed adults. ET is now available nationwide through over 1 000 training managers with 170 training agents advising and assessing would-be participants. The Training and Enterprise Councils will be expected to involve employers in the programme to the maximum extent possible so that appropriate training of the right quality is available and so that what is on offer is relevant to the jobs into which trainees might move.

(b) Youth Training Scheme (YTS)

The YTS was introduced in 1983 and has trained over two million young people. The changing nature of the youth labour market means that in future the scope and role of the YTS will need to be kept under review. More emphasis on qualifications will be necessary. Employers will be expected progressively to take over from government the ownership and development of youth training, by way of the new Training and Enterprise Councils, and in this way the level of qualifications among new entrants to the workforce will be raised.

(c) Business growth training programme

It is planned to introduce, through the Training Agency, a new programme, business growth training, which will unify the help available to companies. This will include: help to people who are self-employed or who own their own firms, in order to stimulate the provision of relevant, flexible and accessible training; help to small businesses to plan and implement the training and development of their employees; and targeted help to industrial training organizations and local bodies such as Training and Enterprise Councils to tackle acute skills shortages in particular areas. This will take place in spring 1989.

(d) Technical Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI)

Every education authority in Britain is now taking part in TVEI. By the early 1990s, all schools and colleges will have the opportunity to participate in the Initiative and all young people aged 14 to 18 in full-time education will have access to it.

(e) Work-related further education programme (WRFE)

The main aim of WRFE is to link vocational education more closely with the needs of employers. The programme provides incentives and help to the public sector of further education to help it to respond more rapidly to the changing needs of employers and to enhance the cost effectiveness of its provision. All local education authorities in England and Wales now have development programmes for further education provision.

Other barriers to employment

The White Paper also identifies other significant barriers to employment growth.

(a) Industrial relations

Employers are now free to decide for themselves whether or not to recognize and negotiate with trade unions. They can, in general, settle pay rates with trade unions or employees free from external interference. They can seek legal

redress against unacceptable forms of industrial action. Trade union members too can make use of the rights which legislation has given them, to ensure that their trade unions are run in accordance with their wishes. In addition, the operation of the pre-entry closed shop will also be examined.

(b) Employee involvement

Employers will increasingly need to involve their staff directly in the economic success of their business by, for example, giving them a direct stake in business performance through profit-related pay and employee share-ownership.

(c) Deregulation

The objective of the single European market should be to reduce unemployment across the Community. Any measures which help economic growth and boost employment will be supported. Any unnecessary regulation which raises the cost of employment and reduces labour market flexibility would be unwelcome.

(d) Pay

Many existing approaches to pay bargaining will need to change if the UK is to secure the flexibility essential to employment growth.

(e) Wages councils

The relevance of wages councils to pay determination in the 1990s is questionable. The future of the wages council system will be reviewed.

(f) Attitudes to employment

Both employers and employees will need to change their attitude to employment. Employers will have to recognize that as demographic change reduces the scope for recruitment from such traditional resources as school-leavers, they will have to recruit and, where necessary, train unemployed people to meet their manpower requirements. Surveys have shown that a significant minority of benefit claimants are not actively looking for work. Some need training to brush up

old skills or learn new ones, but with more than 700 000 unfilled job vacancies in the economy, unemployment could be considerably reduced if unemployed people looked more intensively and more effectively for work. A bill will be introduced to amend the law so as to provide that unemployed benefit claimants, in addition to being capable of work and available for employment, must actively seek work.

Job creation

Belgium

Temporary reductions in social security contributions

The scheme for the temporary reduction of the employer's contribution to social security was brought in by the law of 30 December 1988 (*Moniteur belge*, 5 January 1989). This 'programme law' merges and harmonizes in a single system the benefits provided for by Royal Decrees No 111 of 15 December 1982, No 494 of 31 December 1986 and No 498 of 31 December 1986 and extends their scope. It applies to recruitments after 31 December 1988, those having been made before that date continue to be governed by the aforementioned royal decrees.

The scheme concerns all private-sector employers, natural persons or legal persons.

Cases covered

The law covers four types of cases:

- (i) When hiring a first worker, i.e. either when the new employer has never been subject to the social-security law on the grounds of employing workers other than servants or apprentices, or when he has not come under this law during the 12 consecutive calendar months preceding

the hiring, except if the person(s) on account of whom he was subject to the law were servants, apprentices or trainees undergoing training to become entrepreneurs.

The reduction of the employer's contribution to social security, however, is not due when only the legal personality of the employer is new and the technical operating unit remains the same.

The reduction is granted for a full-time worker, a part-time worker or two workers working half-time.

- (ii) When a worker is replaced who has voluntarily given notice, whose legal pension has started or who has died. The replacement must take place during the three months following the departure of the worker who is being replaced. The reduction is, however, only granted for those quarters during which the paybill declared to the national social security office (ONSS) and the number of workers employed are at least equal to what they were at the end of the quarter preceding the hiring of the replacement.

- (iii) When replacing a worker who is taking a career break and has agreed with his employer to completely suspend the performance of his employment contract or to reduce his performance.

Also in this case, the reduction is only granted for quarters during which the paybill and the number of workers are at least equal to what they were at the end of the quarter preceding the hiring of the replacement.

- (iv) When hiring a worker resulting in a net increase in numbers employed. The reduction is limited to those quarters during which this increase in fact takes place and is maintained. This is verified by ensuring that the following conditions are met:

- (a) at the end of each of the first four quarters of the worker's employment, the number of workers em-

ployed and the paybill must be higher than they were at the end of the corresponding quarter of the previous year;

(b) furthermore, at the end of each of the four quarters following the first four quarters of the worker's employment, the number of workers employed and the paybill must be at least equal to what they were at the end of the corresponding quarter of the previous year and higher than they were at the end of the corresponding quarter of the year preceding the previous year;

(c) finally, at the end of the ninth quarter of employment, the number of workers employed and the paybill must be at least equal to what they were at the end of the corresponding quarters of the two previous years and higher than they were at the end of the corresponding quarter of the year preceding the previous two years.

However, the reduction is not granted when the increase in the number employed results from corporate merger, split-up, transformation or takeover.

(e) are disabled persons registered with the FNH, the national fund for the handicapped;

(f) are voluntary part-time workers drawing 'partial unemployment benefit' for a continuous period of 18 months or 12 months if aged at least 40;

(ii) in addition to the workers mentioned above, new employers can also recruit as a first worker a person who, at the time of hiring, satisfies one of the following conditions:

(a) is fully unemployed in receipt of benefit;

(b) is fully unemployed not in receipt of benefit, registered as jobseeker at the national employment office (ONEM) for more than one year;

(c) is a worker who, having completed an apprenticeship, meets the conditions for drawing unemployment benefit except benefit relating to the waiting period;

(d) is a fully unemployed person registered at ONEM as a jobseeker who, for the two years preceding the hiring, has been liable for at least one year to contribution to the social security system for the self-employed and in that capacity.

time at the employer's. The reduction in contributions starts the day on which the worker concerned is employed and finishes at the end of the eighth quarter following that during which the employment started. The reduction in contributions is not due on compensation for breach of contract.

Should the worker leave before the end of the period, the reduction is maintained for the worker hired to replace the original worker provided he/she belongs to one of the abovementioned categories. However, in this case the replacement must take place in the three months following the departure of the person replaced.

In the case of hiring a first worker and when an employer has been able to draw, for his first worker, either on Royal Decree No 111 of 15 December 1982 or on the reduction in contributions mentioned above, he is entitled to choose a 'social secretariat' which will handle the administration of his/her first and second worker free of charge.

Exclusions

The reduction in the employer's contribution to social security and, where appropriate, the shouldering of the expenses for the social secretariat by the ONSS is not available where

(a) the employers are debtors to the ONSS;

(b) the employers do not meet their quota obligation as regards taking on trainees;

(c) the worker is hired under the regulation governing youth traineeships and the vocational integration of young people.

Prohibition to draw several benefits concurrently

The benefits of the scheme for reducing the employer's contribution to social security cannot be drawn at the same time as those provided by other legal or regulatory provisions aimed at granting benefits of the same nature when hiring specific categories of workers.

Workers to be hired

(i) The workers covered by this scheme must be jobseekers who at the time of being hired satisfy one of the following conditions:

(a) are fully unemployed in receipt of benefit for a continuous period of 12 months and aged between 18 and 25 years;

(b) are fully unemployed in receipt of benefit for a continuous period of 18 months;

(c) are fully unemployed in receipt of benefit for a continuous period of 12 months and at least 40 years of age;

(d) are beneficiaries of the minimum means of subsistence for six months;

The contract

The contract to be concluded is full-time or part-time, of unlimited duration, unless the person is hired as a replacement for a worker taking a career break.

The benefits

In all cases of hiring, a reduction in social security contributions is granted on pay up to a ceiling equivalent to the RMMG, the minimum monthly guaranteed income (BFR 34 731 per month on 1 January 1989) for workers employed full-time.

For workers employed part-time, the RMMG is calculated in proportion to the average minimum monthly income of the full-time worker according to the working

Subsidized employment contracts (contractuels subventionnés)

Royal Decree No 474 of 28 October 1986 brought in a system of subsidized employment contracts in certain local authorities. This scheme sought to harmonize the various local level programmes for mopping up unemployment. Given its undeniable success (there are currently some 39 000 subsidized employment contracts), a similar system has been created for other public authorities by the 'programme law' of 30 December 1988 (*Moniteur belge*, 5 January 1989).

Area of application

The law covers:

- (a) the central administration and services and those placed under their supervision;
- (b) the administrations of the communities and the regions and the public establishments which report to them;
- (c) educational institutions organized, recognized or subsidized by the State;
- (d) the Greater Brussels authorities and the French- and Dutch-language cultural councils;
- (e) some public-welfare establishments as well as some non-profit-making associations and local subsidized housing societies.

These are thus all public authorities or other authorities currently recognized as being 'authorities providing temporary jobs under the "employment for the unemployed" scheme' (*pourvoirs occupant des chômeurs mis au travail*). In line with the government agreement, the aim is in fact to end all job provision by the public authorities under the 'employment for the unemployed' scheme.

Moreover, since there is a requirement that all employees on a subsidized employment contract must work in the non-market sector, public credit institutions are specifically excluded from the notion of 'public welfare establishments' (*établissements d'utilité publique*).

Nor does this law cover 'paracomunal' non-profit-making associations (which can already draw upon subsidized employment contracts under the terms of Royal Decree No 474 referred to above) and hospitals (which are covered by the FBIE, the interdepartmental budgetary fund for employment).

Finally, the King is authorized to limit, or extend, the scope of the law to other public authorities.

The benefits

A subsidy will be granted to the authorities hiring employees on a subsidized employment contract. The rate of the subsidy will be fixed by the King (in accordance with the public authority's contribution to carrying out employment policy). Furthermore the public authority in question will be exempted from paying the employer's social security contributions.

Conditions

Persons on a subsidized employment contract can only be hired to carry out precise and clearly defined tasks, in particular:

- (a) to meet exceptional and temporary staffing needs;
- (b) to replace staff who do not take up their job or are only doing so part-time (including staff who are taking a career break);
- (c) to carry out subsidiary or specific tasks.

Moreover, the subsidy will only be granted if the public authority in question adheres to the following three criteria:

- (a) application of the benefits of the career break;
- (b) recruitment of the number of trainees laid down by Royal Decree No 230 of 21 December 1983 relating to young persons' training periods and their integration into working life;
- (c) the persons hired on a subsidized employment contract must carry out their activities in the non-market sector.

ONEM is entrusted with paying the subsidy to the public authorities which have concluded an agreement either with the Ministry of Labour and Employment (as regards the administrations and services falling under the central authority) or with the competent regional executives as regards the other public authorities.

Who can be hired?

The scheme of subsidized employment contracts is only open to:

- (a) a fully unemployed person who has been in receipt of benefit for at least six months or one who has been in receipt of benefit for at least six months during the year preceding his/her hiring;
- (b) persons employed by the public authority in question in one of the following three schemes: employment for the unemployed (*les chômeurs mis au travail*), the special temporary 'cadres' (CST) and the third circuit of labour (TCT);
- (c) certain fully unemployed persons in receipt of benefit aged at least 40 years;
- (d) certain jobseekers drawing the subsistence minimum.

They are hired on a fixed-term or open-ended employment contract. The employment contract is similar to that of persons employed in the private sector as defined and regulated by the Law of 3 July 1978 governing the employment contract. The public authority in question is the employer of the person on a subsidized employment contract and it pays the person directly.

Final remark

The scope of Royal Decree No 474 instituting the system of employment contracts subsidized by the State in certain local authorities has been extended to the provinces and the associations of provinces, except those with economic aims (Royal Decree of 29 December 1988 — *Moniteur belge*, 11 January 1989).

The Netherlands

Corporate start-ups

From January 1989 a new loan guarantee scheme has been brought in for small and medium-sized firms (SMEs). This replaces the State-guaranteed loan scheme available to the self-employed from SMEs.

A significant difference between the two schemes is that the new one provides easier access for persons who want to set up a firm or become self-employed. Thus the applicant no longer has to provide any minimum amount of private capital. Hence, the so-called starters credit of up to HFL 25 000 under the 'Bz' (decree on assistance for the self-employed) is going to be discontinued.

Due to some technical problems the new provision cannot become operational everywhere. This means that both possibilities for obtaining loans remain provisionally in force. Given the broader possibilities provided under the new loan guarantee scheme for SMEs of 1988, before a decision is taken as regards a request for initial capital to become self-employed under the 'Bz' scheme, an enquiry will be made to ascertain whether the applicant qualifies under the provisions of the new guarantee scheme.

Special categories of workers

Italy

Iron and steel restructuring measures

Decree-law No 5 of 11 January 1989 provides for several important social support measures and reindustrialization incentives.

Until 31 December 1991 workers employed by the following types of companies are entitled to early retirement: firms with State participation in the iron

and steel industry or firms carrying out service or maintenance activities in the iron and steel works of such firms as well as coking companies. To qualify, the workers have to have been employed before 1 January 1988, be at least 50 years old and be able to evidence 180 monthly or 780 weekly contributions to the statutory insurance covering invalidity, old-age and survivors. Payment of the pension is due from the first day of the month which follows the termination of the employment contract. Managers can also qualify for early retirement if they satisfy the age condition, the contribution requirements and introduce a claim.

An upper limit has been fixed for each year with regard to the total number of workers who can take early retirement: 3 100 workers in 1989, 2 800 in 1990 and 2 600 in 1991.

Expenditure for implementing this measure is estimated at LIT 200 billion in 1989, LIT 220 billion for 1990 and LIT 245 billion for 1991.

Workers who were in the employ of the abovementioned companies before 1 January 1988 and who receive benefit from the wage compensation fund (CIG) can be helped towards self-employment or association with other workers. To this end, the decree-law provides for the possibility of claiming, in place of said benefit, the payment of a lump sum equivalent to 36 times the maximum monthly rate of wage compensation. In the Mezzogiorno regions this amount is raised to 42 times the monthly wage compensation rate.

Workers employed by the firms referred to above who are in receipt of the extraordinary CIG benefit can register on a placement list which is specifically prepared for them at the regional level.

To facilitate the reintegration into working life of CIG beneficiaries, the decree-law provides for a relief in contributions to employers who recruit such workers on an open-ended employment contract. This relief is equal to that applying for apprentices and its duration is of 36 months. In such cases nominative

placement can be used (i.e. the employer can select the person he wants to hire), or direct transfers can be made between companies. For employers located in the Mezzogiorno and benefiting already from relief in contributions, a further subsidy is provided: paid for 18 months it amounts to 15% of the remuneration.

These reductions will apply until 31 December 1990.

As regards initiatives aimed at promoting the re-employment of iron and steel workers by 31 December 1990, the companies in question can submit vocational training and retraining schemes to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. These schemes have to be drawn up according to the guidelines of the European Social Fund; they can be financed by the rotating fund (fondo di rotazione), finance being limited to 20% maximum of the fund's resources.

The regulation on early retirement for workers and managers in industry and for miners (Articles 16, 17, 18 of Law No 155/81) continues to be applied until the enactment of the law reforming the regulation governing the Wage Compensation Fund, unemployment and mobility but not later than 28 February 1989. This reform is currently being discussed in parliament.

For workers employed by companies in the aluminium sector, the early retirement scheme will continue to be applied in 1989. However, it will be restricted to those workers who had applied for early retirement by 31 December 1988.

The decree-law also extends the extraordinary benefit of the Wage Compensation Fund for workers employed by companies constituted by the GEPI-SpA (gestione e partecipazione industriale). The extension applies until the enactment of the law reforming the regulation governing the CIG, unemployment and mobility, and in any case not beyond 31 March 1989. The same extension has been laid down as regards the provisions relating to unemployment benefit.

The second part of the decree-law provides for incentives to boost reindustrialization and speed up economic re-

covery and employment growth in those areas affected by the restructuring process of the iron and steel industry. To this end, CIPI (Interministerial Committee for Coordination of Industrial Policy) is examining the special programme for reindustrializing these areas. The programme will specify what individual initiatives are to be carried out and which communes of the provinces of Genoa, Terni, Naples and Taranto are to be singled out for their location.

The special reindustrialization programme will also define the minimum percentage of redundant iron and steel workers to be recruited as well as the nature and characteristics of the individual initiatives and the qualifications required.

The initiatives specified in the programme will benefit from the facilities provided under Law No 64/88 on the 'extraordinary intervention scheme' in the Mezzogiorno as well as from financial incentives such as capital grants and reduced rates of interest.

The decree-law also provides for the institution within the Ministry for State participation of a 'Special fund for reindustrialization' with a total endowment of LIT 660 billion over the years 1989 and 1990.

Special youth employment programme (Law 113/86)

Decree-Law No 548 of 30 December 1988 (Article 14) extends further the final date for the completion of the special youth employment programme introduced by Law No 113 of 11 April 1986. The programme has been extended to 31 December 1989.

The Netherlands

Pilot project in the engineering industry

The Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, the FNV trade-union confederation, the CNV Christian Industry and Foodstuffs trade union and the FME employers' association are jointly setting up in two regions (Tilburg/Den Bosch and

Twente) a project for placing the long-term unemployed in the metal-working and electrotechnical industry. The aim of the experiment is to enable LTUs to fundamentally improve their position on the labour market by means of training and a job lasting at least two years.

Participating firms in both the regions are offering a number of vacancies which the employment offices should try to fill from the existing unemployed who have been registered for more than two years. If no suitable unemployed person can be found in this category, those who have been unemployed for more than one year can be considered. The project-like character of the experiment is expressed *inter alia* by the fact that the unemployed who are going to fill the vacancies will be trained and supervised. In many cases the unemployed will take part in training lasting several months. Whenever the unemployed can start a job without needing training beforehand, the supervision takes on another form, for example through training one day a week.

For the pilot experiment, the CVV vocational training scheme and the Ministry's framework regulation for training (KRS) can be drawn upon to cover training costs. Moreover, the joint engineering industry consultative council (ROM) can provide a grant of up to HFL 5 000 per unemployed person. Those who have been unemployed for more than two years can also draw on the Vermeend/Moor Law. This provides for exemption from a number of employers' contributions for up to four years. Furthermore a grant of HFL 4 000 can be given towards supervising and training the unemployed person. ROM doubles the amount of the sum exempted from contribution for a period of two years.

Counselling interviews evaluation

Counselling interviews with the long-term unemployed have, after a pilot phase, been extended nationwide. Thus 17 000 persons have been called for interview, and 31 000 interviews held with them. So far, action plans have been worked out for nearly 11 000 persons. Thus it would seem likely that the

planned interviewing of 45 000 persons annually can be achieved.

HFL 41.5 million was earmarked for such interviews in 1988, starting in April. In the first instance interviews were held with persons who had been unemployed for three years or more. The intention is to set up action plans designed to enable these persons to return to the labour market. These plans can include in particular: training, work experience and career counselling. Municipalities and regional employment offices (GABs) have set up cooperative associations for holding interviews and working out action plans.

An evaluation of experience shows that 65% of those interviewed so far have got an action programme. Since 9% of those concerned subsequently found work, such a plan was no longer necessary. For 19% of the participants it was impossible to set up an action programme. In many of these cases personal circumstances played a role in this. Less than 4% of those who turned up did not want to cooperate in setting up an action programme. Paid employment could be found immediately for 8% of those interviewed. Two thirds of the cases could be integrated into grant-aided measures such as the Vermeend/Moor Law and the JOB-plan for young people.

At the start of the interviews the cooperative associations were free to decide on the composition of the target group. The group of people which has so far been called for interview varies greatly in composition. Of the 17 000 people so far interviewed, nearly one third is older than 35 years, and one third are women. 16% of the group are non-native and 44% have a low level of education. In a number of cases people have spontaneously made an appointment for an interview whereas 7% have never turned up despite several convocations. Although the people who do turn up adopt a somewhat reserved attitude to start with, they find the interview positive and expect something to come of it.

To set out an action programme an average of two interviews proved to be necessary.

Almost all the additional 250 staff who were to be taken on for the counselling interviews have now been appointed.

Overall, 64 GABs have worked out 370 cooperation agreements with municipalities. In only a few cases has it been impossible to reach such an agreement. Thirty local authorities did not enter a cooperation agreement since there would have been virtually no takers.

Vermeend/Moor Law extended

The Vermeend/Moor Law enables employers who take on long-term unemployed persons to obtain a subsidy and to be exempt from paying employers' social security contributions. It has now been extended to 31 December 1989.

In agreement with the WRR (the scientific council for governmental policy), a number of so-called 'labour integration regulations' of the employment offices are being bundled to streamline the whole of the existing regulations aimed at combating long-term unemployment. This covers MOA (the measure to support integration into working life), the Vermeend/Moor law and JOB, the temporary work experience scheme for long-term unemployed youths. These intentions have not yet been fully worked out since the policy for combating long-term unemployment is still the subject of consultations with the social partners.

Meanwhile it has further been decided that on the basis of decisions taken within the CBA (the central tripartite body for the administration of the labour market which is being set up), the foreseen integrated measure should be launched, if possible, as early as 1 March 1989.

Policy paper on the position of young women in society

The conceptions of girls and young women of their place in society have changed over the past 10 years. Their societal position, on the other hand, has not altered to the same extent. In many areas, including upbringing, education, work and income, there is no question

yet of the new generations of girls and young women being independent. This affirmation is found in a recently published government policy paper on the subject.

The policy objective is to prepare the new generation of girls and young women for an independent existence. In this, emphasis is placed on the relationship between socio-cultural and socio-economic independence. The paper elaborates this policy in the fields of upbringing, education, leisure, work and income, assistance, information and support for the process of emancipation. The paper sets out the policy which has already been started in these fields and reviews new policy intentions and measures.

As regards work and income, the 'Emancipation policy plan' takes the line that the new generation of girls and young women — those who will be 18 in 1990 and the following years — is considered to be in a position to provide for their own subsistence. This starting point will be bolstered in various laws. At present almost 65% of married women aged 20-25 years have a paid job. 85% of the girls of the new generation advocate a division of roles in which both partners work. The report states that the behaviour of men and women, employers and employees is nevertheless in many ways more traditional than could be expected from the changed conceptions. Just like older women, younger women work in a limited number of sectors and occupations and in the lower functions. The earned income of young women in 1985 was, on average, HFL 100 to 250 lower than that of men of the same age.

Although the vast majority of girls still going to school imagine a future in which paid work continues to occupy a place, the traditional 'girls' education' which they choose does not in general provide any favourable employment prospects. The drop in unemployment benefits boys more than girls. Measures by employment offices reach proportionately fewer girls.

The government considers that it is indispensable to improve the link between education and the labour market.

Policy aimed at ensuring that greater numbers of girls and young women are reached through the employment offices' training and employment schemes must be strengthened. With the establishment of the new central body for labour market administration (CBA) there should be consultation on giving grants for guidance and work experience projects for girls who are no longer in education nor in the labour force. The activities of the training funds for young women in the BVJ (apprenticeship) scheme must be boosted. The proportion of girls in the CVV, vocational education centres for adults, must be increased and the vocational careers guidance service for girls and women improved. Training programmes must be set up for non-natives. The emancipation coordinators of the employment offices should also consider young women — they have so far been mainly concerned with women re-entering the labour market. And for a balanced division of paid and unpaid work the policy note affirms that it is necessary for there to be child care, the possibility of parental leave and of a more flexible and longer maternity and confinement leave.

Contest

The Minister for Social Affairs and Employment has called on employers in a number of sectors for ideas or plans aimed at improving the working environment for opening up technical occupations for women. The best idea or plan will be rewarded with a HFL 50 000 prize.

To increase insight into the needs for technically trained women workers, employers are being asked to cooperate in a study drawing up a full inventory. Employers can use the questionnaire to give their opinion on technically trained women and to estimate their future needs as regards personnel.

For some time already the government has been undertaking activities to stimulate girls' and women's enthusiasm for technical training and jobs. Within the 'women sought for "men's" work' campaign, a number of TV spots and commercials are being made in 1989 and 1990.

Working time

The Federal Republic of Germany

Part-time work from the age of 58

The new law on part-time work for older workers which came into force on 1 January 1989 is designed to facilitate smooth transition from working life into retirement. At the same time it is intended to contribute to improving the employment situation. The broad thrusts of the Act are as follows:

To be able to draw upon the scheme there has to be an agreement with the employer which as a rule is made on a voluntary basis, though a collective agreement, for instance, can impose on the employer the obligation to make such an agreement for a certain number of employees. The law gives preferential treatment to employees who

- (a) have reached the age of 58;
- (b) have been in contributory employment for at least 1 080 calendar days during the last five years previous to starting the part-time work for the elderly scheme, having worked the collectively agreed regular weekly hours;
- (c) and from this time on reduce their working time to half that of the collectively agreed regular working hours (but work at least 18 hours a week).

In the agreement, the employer commits himself to topping up by at least 20% the pay earned by the employee under the part-time scheme and to paying contributions for increased insurance under the statutory pension insurance scheme; these contributions are based on the difference between the reduced pay for part-time work and 90% of the last gross pay for full-time work.

BA, the federal employment service, reimburses the employer for the abovementioned minimum expenses, but not for any benefits which exceed these, provided a registered unemployed person (preferably one in receipt

of unemployment benefit or unemployment assistance) is recruited to fill the job made available through the reduction in working time.

Sickness benefit, which an employee receives after the period of continued payment of wages during illness has expired, is calculated on the basis of the pay for part-time work under the scheme. In addition, BA continues to pay the subsidy of at least 20% of the part-time pay by which this pay is being topped up; it also pays the contributions for increased insurance under the statutory pension insurance scheme. The same applies when such a worker becomes unemployed, draws unemployment benefit or unemployment assistance and the benefit is assessed solely according to the part-time employment under the scheme.

The BA allowances are paid for the duration of participation in the scheme — at the longest until old age pension is drawn or a similar allowance for old age provision. But they are not continued beyond the month in which the employee reaches the age of 65.

Luxembourg

Weekly rest

(Law of 1 August 1988 concerning the weekly rest of employees and workers)

Background

On 6 November 1985, an Opinion was adopted on the problems of growth, employment and training. In this connection, the tripartite coordination committee set up a working group to examine in detail 'the problem of rearranging working time in various forms, including the appropriateness of and practical issues connected with a policy for encouraging voluntary retirement from dependent employment'.

The ensuing discussions did not, however, lead to an agreement on the question of answers to the problems of early retirement, working-time flexibility and Sunday working.

For this reason the government, having examined the question of early retirement, tabled a bill in January 1987 modifying legislation concerning the weekly rest of workers and employees and laying down legal provisions for the employment contracts of private-sector employees.

Basic considerations

The following are extracts from the report of the Commission on Labour, Social Security, Health and the Family relating to the reform of legislation on the weekly rest of employees.

'In setting out the legislative intent of Bill 3070, it is stated that: "Aware of the place and role assigned to Sunday rest in our civilization which is based on respect for the citizen's religious, cultural and family life, the government strongly underlines that the reform envisaged under the present bill intends in no way to question the fundamental principle of Sunday rest, solidly rooted in the spirit and the letter of the law of 21 August 1913 concerning the weekly rest of employees and workers and the legal status of the private-sector employee as this results from the law of 7 June 1937, which reformed the law of 31 October 1919 laying down the legal provisions for employing employees in the private sector. Given this fundamental position, the bill, far from weakening the general philosophy underlying legislation governing Sunday rest, pursues the aim of ensuring its modernization and adaptation to the needs of optimal management of working time while at the same time safeguarding the legitimate interests of employees both socially and as regards religion, culture and the family."

The bill is not aimed at facilitating Sunday working but rather at making it more difficult, at the same time setting out opportunities for Sunday working in cases where there are well-founded arguments for using this instrument. In such cases, the terms and the compensations for the employees are strictly regulated so as to improve the situation of those private-sector workers and employees who are required to work on Sundays.

The bill avoids having a minister deciding on his own, by simple ministerial decree, against the wishes of all parties concerned, as is the case with the present legislation.

By placing the Minister for Labour downstream from the contractual commitments of the social partners as regards Sunday working, the bill avoids compelling the trade unions to give their agreement to the boss's decision on Sunday working. On the other hand, the government will not in this way relinquish its responsibility and its decision-making power on this issue, and it can refuse Sunday working in enterprises which are unable to put forward valid reasons related to internal organization or production.'

Main thrusts of the Law of 1 August 1988

1. General ban on Sunday working: Public and private-sector employers are prohibited from having their wage-earners work Sundays, from midnight to midnight.

2. A single law for all wage-earners: The law is of general application. It includes all wage-earners having an employment or apprenticeship contract, irrespective of whether they are workers or employees.

3. Exceptions: Exceptions concern in the first place the identity of the personnel.

As regards members of the employer's family, companies staffed solely with the employer's ascendants, descendants, brothers and sisters or relations of the same degree by marriage are not subject to the general ban on Sunday working.

Exceptions concerning the job of the employee deal, on the one hand, with commercial travellers and representatives in as far as they work outside their companies and, on the other, employees in a real managerial position as well as higher executives whose presence within the enterprise is indispensable to ensure its operations and surveillance.

Secondly, exceptions concern the nature of the work to be carried out, with the following work being allowed on Sundays:

- (i) security work on the corporate premises;
- (ii) cleaning, repairs and maintenance necessary for the normal working of the plant, work other than that of production on which the regular resumption of the activity of the following days depends;
- (iii) work necessary for stopping the deterioration of raw materials or products;
- (iv) urgent works which have to be carried out immediately for organizing rescue measures, to prevent imminent accidents or to repair accidents to the company's material, machinery and buildings.

In all these cases, the corporate head is required to inform the director of the labour and mines inspectorate in advance, as well as the competent representative body of the personnel. He must draw up a list providing information on the workers working on Sundays, the length of their work and the nature of the work carried out or to be carried out.

Thirdly, there are exceptions relating to the nature of the enterprise.

- (a) In retail outlets wage-earners are allowed to work for four hours on Sundays. A Grand-Ducal ruling can do away with this possibility or extend working time to eight hours maximum for six Sundays at the most each year, subject to the provisions governing normal hours of work.

When Sunday closing of a retail outlet is likely to compromise its normal working because of the size of the turnover on Sundays and the impossibility of having enough clients coming on other days of the week, the Minister for Labour can grant exemptions, temporary or permanent, from the ban on Sunday working in duly justified cases, also subject to the provisions governing normal hours of work.

- (b) Certain enterprises are exempt from the general ban by their very nature:

- (i) A Grand-Ducal ruling can exempt different enterprises from the general ban on Sunday working: enterprises which use water; those carrying out activities needed on Sundays for satisfying the needs of the public which occur either every day or mainly on Sundays; activities which are only carried out for part of the year or whose intensity fluctuates according to the seasons; and public-utility activities.
- (ii) There are 10 categories of enterprises which by right do not come under the general ban on Sunday working: hotels, restaurants, canteens, bars and other establishments serving drinks; chemists and shops providing medical and surgical equipment; fairgrounds and entertainments; agricultural and viticultural enterprises; public entertainment enterprises; companies providing lighting and water and energy distribution; transport companies; establishments whose aim is the treatment or hospitalization of the ill, the infirm, the destitute and the insane, community clinics, children's homes, sanatoriums, convalescent homes, old people's homes, holiday camps, orphanages and boarding schools; enterprises in which work, because of its very nature, allows neither interruption nor delay; household workers' services.

This list can be completed by Grand-Ducal ruling taken after consultation with the Council of State.

- (c) Enterprises where continuous shift-working is based on conditions which are not inherent in the production technology (introducing Sunday working for purely economic reasons) can also be exempt under certain conditions:

An enterprise agreement can lift the ban on the principle of Sunday working to provide for better use of production facilities and the increase or consolidation of the existing number of jobs. The social partners are thus given the right to take the initiative in this respect.

Once the enterprise agreement has received the approval of all the trade unions which are authorized to conclude it, it must be approved by the Minister for Labour. This approval enables the minister to check that the legal criteria are respected. The minister can rescind, after consultation with the Minister for the Economy, if the conditions and terms which accompany the introduction of Sunday working are not respected.

When a consensus of trade union organizations cannot be reached, the decision-making competence is transferred to the Minister for Labour who exercises it after having consulted the whole of the personnel concerned by the reorganization of working time.

In cases of opening new enterprises, the law confers the exclusive decision-making power on the Minister for Labour.

Social compensation

There are two elements to social compensation:

- (i) each hour worked on Sundays opens up the right to one paid hour of rest during the week;
- (ii) moreover, each hour worked on Sundays opens up the right to a 70% pay supplement.

However, this pay supplement can be replaced in hotels, restaurants, canteens, bars and other establishments serving drinks as well as in agricultural and viticultural enterprises by two additional days of paid holiday a year if the wage-earner works at least 20 Sundays in the course of the year.

Placement

The Federal Republic of Germany **SIS — A new approach to placement**

SIS (an abbreviation in German for 'job information service') has been tested in a selected number of employment agencies since October 1988. The novelty of this placement procedure consists in the fact that, under SIS, vacancies are advertised with the full name and address of the employer.

SIS is an additional service of the public employment service. It is based on the principle that the extent and intensity of the demands on the office's placement and counselling staff are determined by the need of the jobseeker to exchange information with the employment office and the degree of difficulty experienced by the individual in the search for a new job. Each jobseeker will be given the attention that he/she actually wants. So long as the jobseeker wants to remain anonymous, this wish will be respected.

The more employment offices are involved by employers and jobseekers in the matching process on the labour market, the better they can carry out their placement function. It is hoped that SIS will lead to more employers and more jobseekers making use of the employment offices for filling vacancies and looking for jobs than is currently the case.

It is expected that SIS will facilitate a better matching of profiles through self-determined job search, so that jobseekers might possibly apply for vacancies which — given the narrow organization of the job placement service according to occupational classifications — they would not necessarily have been referred to.

SIS should also enable job vacancies to be filled more quickly and the unemployed to leave unemployment more rapidly than is the case in the organiza-

tional arrangement of 'half-open' placement (i.e. where employment office staff retain the necessary information to act as professional brokers).

Particular attention has to be paid in this connection to the possible effects of SIS on vocational reintegration into working life of so-called 'problem groups'. There is a need to analyse whether in particular those jobseekers with educational and vocational training deficiencies will, in addition to having problems in looking for jobs, be exposed by SIS to increasing competitive pressure and exclusion; or whether there are not, in fact, possible positive consequences of SIS for these problem groups.

Techniques

The presentation of job vacancies in SIS is two-fold in form:

- (i) on a screen;
- (ii) printed lists.

Calling up information on a screen has been developed completely from scratch. Simple and self-explanatory programmes and search processes are essential in ensuring user acceptance of an electronic medium. SIS must lead every user to the occupation sought as quickly and as easily as possible.

The variety of search processes provides the user for the first time with a multidimensional access procedure to advertised job vacancies. The test period will show which search processes are preferred and what needs to be optimized.

Staff of the employment office are on hand to provide help in using SIS. SIS also provides the opportunity for jobseekers to telephone the employers, directly and immediately. The telephones available within SIS can be used freely for the immediate vicinity. Telephone calls beyond the local call area can be made through the staff of the employment office located within SIS.

Careers information centres — BIZ

There are currently in the Federal Republic of Germany, including West Ber-

lin, more than 100 BIZ — careers information centres. BIZ provide young people and adults with the full range of information on career choice and development, training and labour market opportunities.

Employment offices offer two sorts of self-service information units: the stationary (the BIZ as such) and the mobile. The latter, called Mobis, are used in the catchment areas of those employment offices which do not yet have a BIZ. The supply of self-service information ranges from folders, through books and periodicals, films and slide presentations to recorded programmes. There is no need to make an appointment for calling on a BIZ. And whoever wants to can remain anonymous.

In the future development of BIZ, the possibility of demonstrating careers and occupations by computers is being considered. EDP should be used, for instance, to ascertain interests by playing on the screen.

Some two million persons visit BIZ and Mobis every year. In addition 45 000 events are held every year in BIZ, including lectures, meetings and group discussions.

BIZ and Mobis are striving to encourage information search by the individual, thereby opening up and supporting self-initiative. Given the continuing problems on the labour market, it is imperative for the individual to develop initiative. For successful career start and development, personal commitment is required.

- (i) the need to harmonize the methodology and objectives with those of other Community countries to obtain international comparability in accordance with Eurostat directives;
- (ii) the need to provide more detailed and more exact information because of a growing demand for more pay statistics;
- (iii) the obsolescence of the previous survey resulting from changes on the labour market.

The new pay survey is of short-term changes aimed at reflecting the level and development of remuneration of the labour factor in non-agricultural sectors. It enables periodic and harmonized information to be obtained on the following points:

- (a) average monthly pay per worker;
- (b) average pay per hour worked;
- (c) average number of hours worked per worker and month.

These data are broken down by groups of workers employed full-time and part-time as well as by categories of workers and employees, irrespective of the type of contract, in enterprises employing at least five persons. Results by sex are given once a year.

At the national level, 45 industries are presented whereas at the level of the autonomous communities three major sectors are given: manufacturing, construction and services.

Information is provided on a quarterly basis for the whole country, with monthly results provided in advance.

As recommended by Eurostat, the workers are grouped for the purposes of the survey into 'workers' and 'employees' defined according to the occupational classification drawn from the bases of contribution to the social security. The survey uses the Community definition of gross average pay for industrial workers established by Eurostat. In this sense pay is recorded in gross terms. It is defined as being remuneration in cash and in kind paid monthly to the workers for the hours of work or the work performed, together with the re-

muneration for periods of time not worked, such as vacation and bank holidays, prior to any deduction made by the employer for tax purposes, employees' contributions to social security and other contributions the worker is required to make. Employers' social security contributions and allowances paid to workers by the social security as well as compensation are excluded.

The questionnaire is based on the principle of simplicity to facilitate its use. Most of the headings refer to administrative concepts and documents in general use by enterprises, collecting data, on the one hand, identifying the employer and, on the other, the workers concerned in the reference month, distinguishing between workers employed full-time, part-time or those who are 'in a situation of proceedings of employment regulation' (collective redundancies) or those affected by a labour dispute. Questionnaires are collected by the provincial services of INE — the statistical office. Information is sorted in two phases: first by the provincial services of INE; and secondly, by the promotor unit in the central INE services through monthly computations.

The main differences compared with the former pay survey concern the group of workers examined (which has now been extended to all workers irrespective of the type of employment contract or daily working time); results broken down according to full-time and part-time workers and annually by sex; the breakdown of results by autonomous communities, the simplification of the questionnaire, and its regularity.

Luxembourg

Adoption leave for private-sector employees

(Law of 14 March 1988)

There exists under civil law a very broad equality of treatment between legitimate descendants and adoptive descendants. The purpose of the law of 14 March 1988 is also to eliminate, in as far as possible, irregularities persisting between the legitimate family and the adop-

Miscellaneous

Spain

New pay survey

A new pay survey in industry and the services was brought in January 1989 after having been run on an experimental basis since October 1988. It is an in-depth revision of the former survey. The main reasons justifying the revision are:

tive family in the social field, in particular by creating a statutory claim to adoption leave for adoptive parents who are wage- or salary-earners.

The intention of the legislator has also been to harmonize the right to adoption leave which can be claimed by private-sector employees with the system of 'welcoming leave' (congé d'accueil) which is applicable to civil servants. The law on terms and conditions of civil servants gives them eight weeks' leave if they adopt a pre-school age child. The period of leave is 12 weeks if more than one child is being adopted.

Provisions of the Law of 14 March 1988

1. Where a married couple adopts a pre-school age child, the wife employed under an employment contract by a private-sector employer has the right to eight weeks' paid leave on producing a certificate from the court certifying that the adoption procedure has been started. In cases where more than one child is adopted, the duration of the adoption leave is raised to 12 weeks.

The husband can assert a claim to adoption leave from his private-sector

employer provided his wife waives her right to adoption leave. The same applies for the husband employed in the private sector whose wife is self-employed. When the adoption leave has been requested and granted to the husband, it can no longer be applied for by the wife.

Where one of the adoptive parents is employed in the public sector and has been granted adoption leave under the general terms and conditions of civil servants, the adoption leave laid down in the provisions of the Law of 14 March 1988 can no longer be granted.

2. Single parents, whether a male or female wage-earner, are also eligible for adoption leave, provided that the pre-school age child is not already living with the adoptive parent.
3. Adoptive parents having the right to adoption leave are protected as regards employment maintenance and re-employment in the same way as mothers having the right to post-natal leave.
4. The adoption leave is paid for by the State, as is the maternity leave. Since the adoption leave is a statutory right (adoption leave has thus to be given if

the conditions are fulfilled), penal sanctions are laid down in cases of offences against the provisions of the law.

5. Finally, private-sector adopters who do not have the right to adoption leave — or do not request it — can claim an extraordinary leave of two days provided the child adopted is under 16 years of age. The extraordinary leave is paid for by the employer.

Financial impact

There are few adoptions in Luxembourg. From 1974 to 1979, the annual number of adoptions exceeded 100. 1975 was a record-breaking year with 180 adoptions.

Between 1980 and 1985 the number of adoptions was well below 100, with only 68 in 1982. Since 1986 the 100 barrier has again been broken, and in 1987 there were 103: 45 Luxembourgers, 23 Koreans, 10 Brazilians, 5 Colombians, 5 Indians, 3 Portuguese, 2 Germans, 2 Belgians, 2 Dutch, 1 Danish, 1 Italian and 1 Ecuadorian.

The small number of adoptions means that the financial impact of the law will not be very significant.

New technology and social change

Overview of recent events in the Community countries¹

Introduction

I — Government policies

1. Promotion of R & D
2. Industrial policy
3. Labour law and general working conditions
4. Education and vocational training
5. Attitudes to technology
6. Civil liberties

II — Social groups

1. Employers' attitudes
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3. Collective agreements and labour disputes

III — Research

1. Diffusion of new information technologies
2. Employment
3. Qualifications
4. Working conditions, health and safety
5. Other fields

IV — Experiences in specific sectors

1. State and local administration
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5. Printing industry
6. Telecommunications
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8. Private sector
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Introduction

This section of *Social Europe* deals not with the technical aspects of new technologies but with their social (and economic) impacts. Left to the sole forces of the market, these impacts are, it is argued, as likely to be deleterious as beneficial to the workforces in particular and society in general: technology can as well contribute to combat pollution, unemployment, the quality of working life, etc. So governments have a key role to play both in the design of policy and in monitoring developments — the outcomes of both its own policies and of market forces.

In the design of policies, governments have constantly to decide which frameworks have to be modified in the light of changing environments and goals: for the task of government is to balance the current and future general good with the current needs and demands of specific interests and groups. Just how difficult such policy balances are is indicated in the following survey of the period covering the end of 1988 and beginning of 1989.

A first continuing purpose of governmental IT policies has been to ensure that their countries are in the vanguard of developments in IT in specific niches. Such policy aims can be pursued in parallel with a second which is to ensure that indigenous enterprise makes the greatest possible use of the world's best IT practices and potential. Both policy approaches need, however, to be completed with assessments of the potential impacts of the technologies in question.

In the first category of aims — seeking to ensure technological leadership — policy is being rethought by the German Government. Whereas the (natural) tendency of 'big government' is to co-operate with 'big business', the (natural) structure of enterprise is a predominance of small businesses. Yet virtually none of these small businesses will be able to develop a close relationship with government in designing and implementing its IT policy. The same will not be true, however, of the bulk of the vigor-

ous medium-sized companies. This *Mittelstand*, which is considered to be the backbone of German industry and exports, is the key partner in the future of Germany's renewed IT policy.

The Danish Government has moved towards this policy stance, but from another direction: it sees the country's key weakness to lie in small-sized companies devoting insufficient resources to research: small firms need to adopt IT more readily, and they need to be prodded, persuaded, pushed towards devoting more of their own resources to research. For it, the Danish Government, already spends on research resources which are at least comparable with those of other industrialized countries — perhaps one reason for its winding up its large-scale IT awareness programme one year early, which brings in the other thrust of government IT policy: to spread best practices.

Thus, if the medium-sized companies are increasingly the focus of government IT leadership policies, smaller firms remain a vital element of the fabric of enterprise and entrepreneurship and are hence the focus of best practice IT policies. But what is the role of government in enhancing their technological competence? The policy of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg towards new technologies encapsulates the extreme of 'passive dynamism': importing the best, because it cannot produce any itself; and promoting the country as an industrial location. But such inactivism carried over into the area of training is increasingly criticized in Luxembourg. An example of a more proactive policy is provided by Ireland. There, the government has launched the 'technological audit' programme: although the pro-

¹ Prepared by the Commission on the basis of information provided by the EPOS network of correspondents on new information technologies, which comprises the following experts: G. Valenduc (B), J. Reese (D), N. Bjørn-Andersen (DK), J. I. Palacio Morera (E), N. Azoulay and V. Champetier (F), M. Nikolidakos (GR), M. E. J. O'Kelly and J. F. Dinneen (IRL), P. Piacentini and B. Poti (I), D. van der Werf (NL), L. Tadeu Almeida (P), T. Brady (UK).
Coordinator for the Commission: T. Hubert.

gramme's focus is technology and its use, it propagates a holistic line. This is because one corporate function and feature can perform no better than the weakest function or feature.

Such technology assessments have been clearly practised at the macro level for many years. In this issue a brief presentation is made of the results of the Commission's FAST research programme in Belgium and its continuation in the future. The results of such broad assessments have tended to be contentious; but they have shown that there need be no technological determinism. One of their primary tasks has been to examine the potential impact of new technological developments on employment.

Such developments will inevitably change, perhaps eliminate, a variety of jobs and thus must be resisted by those entrusted with defending the workers' rights: the trade unions. In the period considered the German trade unions have criticized the passage from the 'Work humanization programme' to the 'Technology and work' programme both because 'humanizing' work is being downgraded at the expense of 'increasing productivity' and because insufficient funds are being devoted to the new programme. Yet other examples from Belgium, Germany, Italy and France illustrate that new technologies, introduced after full consultation with the workforce, can provide not only more interesting but also more secure and competitive jobs. This is the whole thrust of the French Government's policy of 'negotiated modernization': consultation is worthwhile, but concertation is better. And the economic sense of associating workforces directly with change is indicated both in corporate examples and in current research in Germany and Italy on 'automated factories'.

Another aspect of policy is to ensure that what has been decided is implemented: feedback. But increasingly, implementation is not performed by government, but in an often highly decentralized way by enterprises as such, research establishments, consultants, etc. For if policy is public, its implementation

need not be (and increasingly is not) public: efficiency is more and more seen as an attribute of private organizations. Thus, governments are concerned with careful monitoring of policy implementation.

The recurring and universal prime example of this movement towards 'privatization' in Community countries is in telecommunications services: irrespective of colour, governments almost everywhere are privatizing national telecommunications services, but only reluctantly de-monopolizing specific areas of the services.

I — Government policies

1. Promotion of R&D

BMFT, the federal German Ministry of Research and Technology, and BMW, the federal Ministry of the Economy, have published a discussion document on 'The future design of IT'. Its main goals are:

- (a) to maintain and increase the attractiveness of Germany as a location for IT companies;
- (b) to enable domestic IT producers and users and their connected services to use the international division of labour and thereby maintain and increase jobs;
- (c) to make early studies of the impact of IT developments and uses so as to seize opportunities early and avoid risks and wrong paths;
- (d) to strengthen the participation of small and medium-sized users in microelectronics in future government programmes since excessive demands are often put on these firms.

The draft has been submitted for discussion to other ministries, various

groups and the trade unions for their opinions following which a document should be adopted.

The 'humanization of work' programme of the German Federal Government was terminated in 1988. Its successor is the 'Work and technology' programme, the work of which is outlined in the table on p. 61.¹

The SPD have criticized this new programme because of the declining importance it attaches to humanization, its small budget and its lack of resources' increase over the programme period.²

In December 1988, the British House of Commons all-party Trade and Industry Committee published its report on the UK information technology industry.³ The report is critical of the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) for not taking a more effective coordinating role in a number of areas — R&D, infrastructure development, public procurement and government use of IT products such as computers and telecommunications. The report criticizes the decision to abolish the post of Minister for IT. The report concludes that the government should give signposts, that it has a central role of entrepreneur, encouraging projects in collaboration with the private sector, improving IT usage in the community; that a specific DTI unit should be established to promote IT use within government at all levels; that more accurate figures should be produced on trade in electronic products; that, together with the European Community, IT companies in Japan and the USA should have access to the European market on the same terms as access to Japan and the USA by European companies.

Greek policy has been affected by the weakening of the Secretariat General for Research and Technology and the inactivity of the Governmental Informatics Council (IC). This Council has a budget of ECU 360 million for the introduction

¹ *Handelsblatt*, 13 January 1989.

² Trade and Industry Committee, First report: 'Information technology', Vol. 1, HMSO, 1988.

Areas	(million DM)			
	1989	1990	1991	1992
1. Health protection through reducing burdens	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.5
2. Humane use of new technology	20.5	22.0	22.0	22.0
3. Transfer of scientific knowledge and firms' experiences on humanizing working conditions	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0
4. Humanely designed working conditions in individual branches of industry	33.0	35.0	35.0	35.0
5. Basic and horizontal issues and staffing	12.0	13.0	13.0	13.0
Total	95.5	99.5	99.5	99.5

and dissemination of IT in the public sector, support of the local informatics industry, the implementation of the integrated Mediterranean programme and the creation of databanks.

Overall, Danish private companies spend too little on R&D: 0.7% of GNP compared with 2% in Germany and Sweden. The main reason is the large number of small companies which spend little on research. Public R&D spending, on the other hand, is comparable to these countries. The government wants industry to increase spending by 100%. Moreover, it is the exception that private and public R&D groups cooperate in longer-term projects. To encourage more R&D in private companies, measures such as cheap loans and grants to purchase expensive hardware and tax deductions are needed.

In an attempt to encourage smaller companies to take an active and positive stance towards technology, the Irish Government has launched the Technology Audit Programme. This will subsidize, retrospectively once targets have been achieved, 170 small and medium-sized companies which draw on external consultants to assess the current status of technology they employ as regards materials, products and human resources and subsequently draw up recom-

mendations aimed at improving performance and profitability. Technology is not examined in isolation but as one aspect of the company overall, which includes finance, management and market potential. The programme constitutes part of the 1989 science and technology budget, which has been increased 165% over that of 1988.

In France, the right of a works council to call on the services of a technological expert is gaining ground. The cassation court has given a ruling that this can happen in cases of an 'elaborate project' for bringing in new technologies. And although the concept of 'elaborate project' is vague, jurisprudence is being built up in the area.

An ECU 17.4 million four-year super-computer plan was launched in Belgium in January 1989. This will coordinate and link the mainframe computers in the universities and research centres and provide a high-level post-graduate training programme. Within the framework of 'aids to political decision-taking' projects, the Belgian Government has earmarked ECU 0.4 million for technology assessment.¹ On the regional level, the Walloon Minister for New Technologies has set up the 'States-General on new technologies' to examine key issues in R&D: research and the market, collective

research centres, European research cooperation and technology assessment.

The new Belgian FAST programme will emphasize the integration of technological and social research so as to focus on constructive technology assessment while maintaining the prime objective of 'technology and risk assessment'. The importance of the human factor in maintaining international competitiveness will be emphasized, though not to the detriment of social, especially ecological, values. And more attention will be paid to getting results across to potential users. An inventory of 'scientific popularization' initiatives in Belgium is being made to determine whether the example of Paris Science and Industry City could be followed.

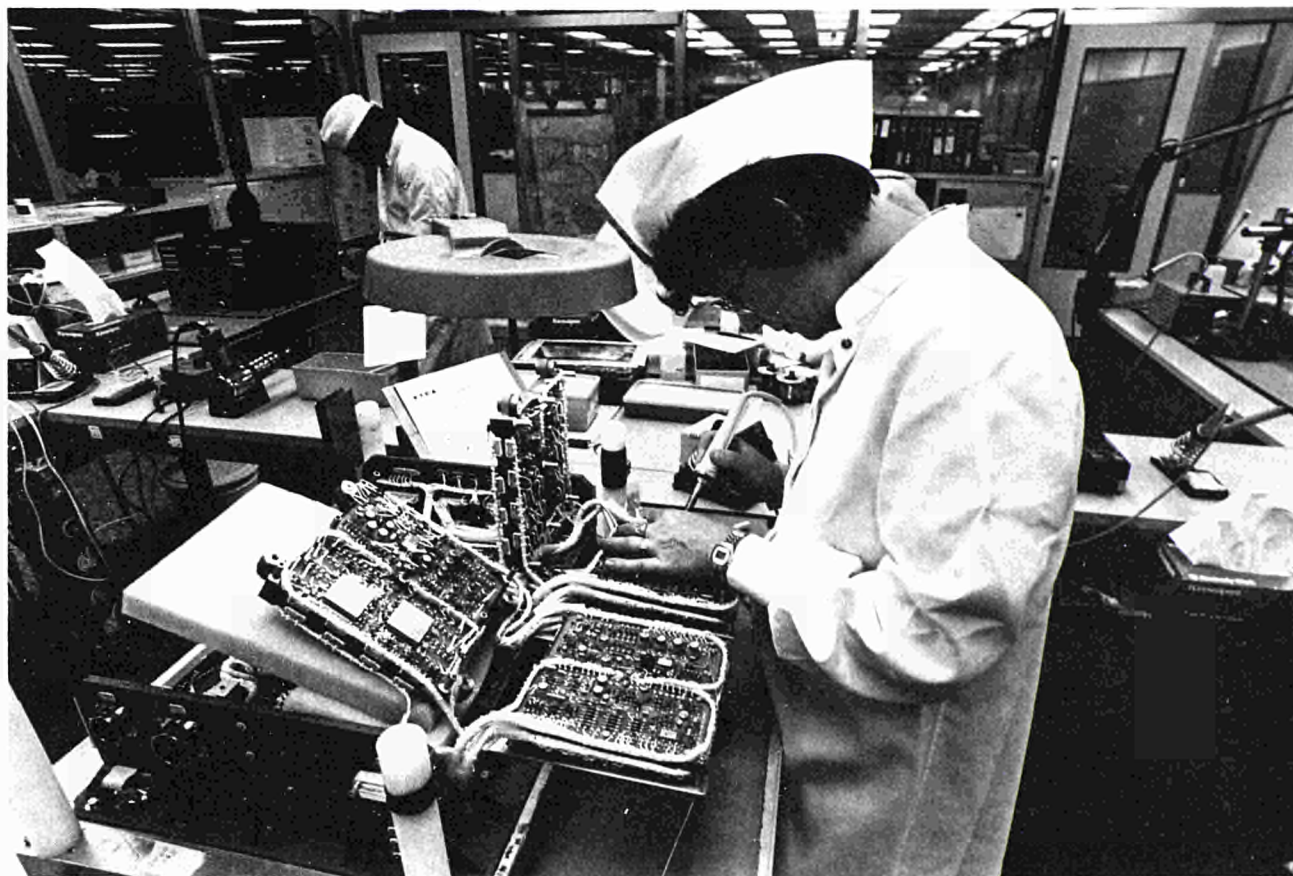
Istat, Italy's central statistical office, has surveyed the research and innovation performance of some 8 000 industrial firms. This survey provides indications of the impact of governmental incentives' legislation, particularly Law No 696/1983 giving support for the purchase of advanced machinery and Law No 46/1982 financing applied R&D projects. It appears that self-financing is the norm, with only 36% of the firms having applied for State support.

With the financial support of Sprint, a company has been established in Naples to carry out joint ventures with European partners (Denmark's Centec, Germany's VDI/VDE for IT) through research and technology consultancy. Also in the south of Italy, projects related to pollution control and biotechnology will be linked to Ireland to understand the difficulties of innovation dissemination. A sample of 100 smaller firms working in these areas will be surveyed in the two countries.²

ECU 30 million has been earmarked in Italy to strengthen the research hardware of the universities and other public

¹ Royal Decree of 27 December 1988; *Moniteur belge*, 24 January 1989.

² *Il Sole*, 24 Ore, 3 March 1989.



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laboratories.¹ Some 10% of this amount is being made available for computer-based networks between libraries.

In 1988 the Dutch PBTS business technology promotion programme spent HFL 113 million (ECU 49 million) on IT (43%), new materials (39%), biotechnology (27%) and medical technology (8%). 60% of proposals came from firms with fewer than 100 employees.²

2. Industrial policy

'Negotiated modernization' is a policy concept propagated by the French Government since December 1988 to enhance corporate competitiveness. The policy strives to stimulate dialogue between management and their personnel,

including their representatives, when bringing in technological or other major change. Various financial supports can be provided to help improve working conditions and alleviate redundancies. At the national level a coordination committee has been established to ensure that there is coherence between these public support systems for negotiated modernization.

Modernization is also indispensable for Portuguese manufacturing industry, particularly textiles. Textiles represents 25% of gross national product, 60% of which is for export representing one third of Portuguese exports; and not only does textiles employ directly 220 000 persons, but it is an important source of income for more than 800 000. Between 1977 and 1984 Community countries' investment per job increased in spinning

and weaving by 100%; such a process currently needs replication in Portugal. Any modernization policy needs to pay particular attention to the inadequacies of the financial structure and the flexibility of the labour market.

The basic lines of Spanish industrial policy were reiterated in February 1989 as:

- (a) completing industrial restructuring through continuing the plans to reduce production capacity and jobs and to modernize existing facilities;
- (b) reorganizing specific sectors such as electronics to make them more internationally competitive, encouraging

¹ ADN-Kronos, *Supplemento Tecnologia e Ricerca*, 14 March 1989.

² *Staatscourant*, 16 February 1989.

multinational corporations to set up in Spain, merging and bringing about a greater degree of specialization within smaller firms;

- (c) strengthening the energy sector, increasing domestic supply, diversifying primary sources of energy and reducing oil consumption with the aim of fostering consumption of natural gas and coal; and
- (d) setting up different financial aid schemes to encourage the incorporation of new technologies.

Business innovation centres are being established in Italy providing common services and venture capital. One case is revitalizing the Trieste area,¹ where a dozen small, research-intensive firms have been set up, often as partnerships between young managers and university researchers.

The UK Government published a White Paper² setting out its proposals for broadcasting in the UK in the 1990s. The main proposals were designed to increase both choice and competition.

The UK Government's committee examining the nation's communications published its report 'The infrastructure of tomorrow'.³ This advocates leaving the process of shaping the new infrastructure to market forces, rather than having the government pay for an advanced telecommunications structure based on optical fibres.

3. Labour law and general working conditions

On 1 January 1989 the legal amendment to the German company constitution law came in which, in the present context, improves the right to information of the works council when bringing in new technologies. The employer is required to consult with the works council about all possible consequences of proposed measures so that the council's suggestions can be taken into account. He must inform the individual workers concerned and discuss with them further training actions which might be needed.⁴

Proposed changes in the Dutch Works Council Act have been put forward by the Minister. One aspect concerns arbitration in cases of disagreement between the works council and management (to be submitted to the lowest court of appeal rather than a special joint committee) and another the greater protection of home-workers. Unions, previously criticizing the working and employment conditions of home-workers, are hesitant about changes which could add to employers' costs and hence stimulate them to automate the jobs away.

An experiment in tele-working in France indicates the benefits for companies in meeting their social obligations for hiring the disabled (in this case the disabled with severe motory troubles) by making use of new technologies.⁵

The Dutch FNV trade union's Technology Support Centre has examined works councils and their influence on corporate management. It indicates that one third of councils have not been consulted on the implementation of new technology; and those which have been consulted have tended to receive insufficient information (too late, incomplete or lack of expertise to understand it).⁶

The 1983 Belgian collective agreement CCT No 39 on giving workers information and consulting them on introducing new technologies has been evaluated, as was laid down when it was signed. Trade union studies⁷ have indicated that little has happened both because employers were not inclined to do anything and because trade union delegates preferred to use other approaches to get their ideas across and recourse to outside experts could not be had. Current social partner discussions focus on the possibility of integrating CCT No 39 procedures into works councils and works health and safety committees.

In Belgium, Philips has followed Unisys, Memorex and Bell in making substantial staff reductions in electronics plants.

In France, 2 175 corporate-level agreements were made in 1988, a clear

advance on the previous year. Agreements on reducing working time are becoming increasingly rare, being replaced by those which foresee increases in the length of the working week.

In Greece trade unions in the area of IT have expressed their opinion on national scientific issues. Speakers to the meeting of the Panhellenic Federation of computer workers in the public sector on informatics and public administration have been critical of government policy and have called on it to establish an informatics school at the national public administration school. More generally, the question of informatics in the press has been given wide press coverage.

4. Education and vocational training

The UK Government published a White Paper in December 1988 on the future arrangements for training. This lays down the establishment of some 100 employer-led local Training and Enterprise Councils. Separate arrangements for Scotland⁸ merge two existing agencies into 'Scottish Enterprise'.

The place of design and technology in the new UK national curriculum for schoolchildren between the ages of five and 16 was the subject of an official committee report, which recommends that every school establish good links with local companies to ensure that subjects are taught properly. Eventually, there should be a national (GCSE) exam in design and technology.⁹

¹ *Il Sole*, 24 Ore, 22 February 1989.

² 'Broadcasting in the 1990s: Competition, choice and quality. The Government's plans for broadcasting legislation', HMSO, 1988.

³ HMSO, 1988.

⁴ *Handelsblatt*, 13 December 1988.

⁵ *Science et technologies*, No 14, April 1989.

⁶ Berentsen, B. *En de invloed houden ze tegoeed — Ondernemingsraden en technologische veranderingen*, FNV, 1988.

⁷ See *Social Europe* 3/87 and 3/88.

⁸ 'Scottish Enterprise: A new approach to training and enterprise creation', HMSO, 1988.

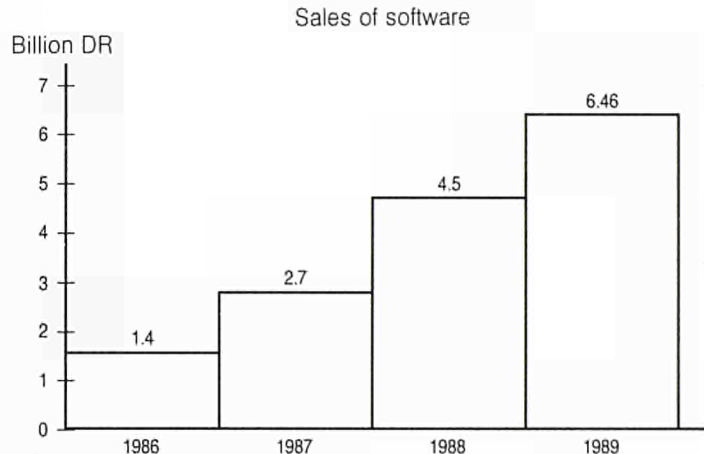
⁹ 'Design and technology in the national curriculum: Interim report', Department of Education and Science.

In Germany, training women in computing has again come to the fore as it is seen that the usual structure of computer training (function, programming, etc.) is mainly addressed to technically-interested young men. Girls have to make a much greater learning effort to keep up with boys and tend to drop out of courses. After other towns, Munster has now approved a broad programme for women. The main purpose is to prepare schoolgirls for skilled employment. To this end, a computer course has been especially designed for girls. The course uses experience to design teaching about computers so that it is built into various fields of practical use. It is not the computer as such which is at the centre but its function as a tool. This, rather than the traditional method is seen as the approach of the future.¹

The Irish Government has conferred independent university status on the two national institutes of higher education in Dublin and Limerick. Among the effects of the changed status is the development of credit transfer arrangements and joint teaching programmes with foreign universities, the development of international research networks with companies and universities, the retention of high calibre staff and the setting up of fund-raising initiatives.²

5. Attitudes to technology

In connection with the Nordic Technology Year, 2 000 Danes were asked about their feelings on new technologies. Danes evidently value family life and health highly and are against environmental degradation. Technology is welcome if it can help achieve these goals. But few want to discuss technology without discussing how it is used. Half are positively disposed towards new technologies, many because they are optimistic about the future. One-third tend to be negative because they are scared of or do not understand it; and one-fifth are half-hearted. Two-thirds believe the individual citizen becomes more passive and powerless with the advent of new technology and one-third believe the contrary. More men than



Source: Strategic International.

women want technology at work and about half the population has some direct knowledge of computers.³

The Federal German parliamentary committee enquiring into technology assessment held a hearing on 'Participation of parliament in the design of technological change within the framework of the division of powers'. Those participating spoke in favour of institutionalizing parliament's technological assessment role, but parliament itself appears to favour having TA carried out in outside, scientific institutions, changing according to the case. This approach will be piloted for a three-year period.⁴

The Danish Government's technological development programme (TUP) was wound up one year early due to lack of funds. As an exercise making companies aware of the value of IT, it appears to have been successful.⁵

6. Civil liberties

The Federal German Government has laid down a bill on the further development of data processing and data protection. It has been sharply criticized for various reasons including the fact that data collection is not included.⁶

The German Justice Ministers have set up a group to draw up statistics on computer crime to help in the drafting of laws in this field.⁷

The German Federal Constitutional Court has decided on the case of the Federal Post Authorities imposing fines and imprisonment on persons illegally importing telephone accessories such as modems (for which the Post Office has a monopoly). The decision means that although this behaviour remains illegal, it is not up to the Bundespost to lay down the punishment.⁸ The Federal Government does not consider that legal means can be found to forbid advertisements from being sent by telefax.⁹

From 1 January a start has been made with the introduction of an automated system of registration of the Dutch population: the 'GBA' project. A pilot approach was started in 14 municipalities and five user organizations. Combining all previously separate available information has brought up objections and the creation of a lobby to maintain vigilance on personal data registration. Objections concern in particular:

- (a) combining fiscal and social-security information into a 'Sof-number';

¹ *Handelsblatt*, 27 December 1988.

² *Technology Ireland*, March 1989.

³ *Computerworld*, 16 December 1988.

⁴ *VDI-Nachrichten*, 6/89.

⁵ *Computerworld*, 13 January 1989.

⁶ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 12 January 1989.

⁷ *Wirtschaft und Produktivität*, 1/89.

⁸ *Handelsblatt*, 7 March 1989.

⁹ *Handelsblatt*, 2 March 1989.

(b) The registration of personal data by the police and justice authorities.¹

So far in Italy, patent law has not covered chips and other innovations incorporated into ME circuits. This gap was filled with the act acknowledging the rights of 'exclusive property' on reproduction, distribution and commercial exploitation of the design of ME circuits based on semiconductor technology.² The rights to exclusive exploitation cover a period of 10 years and concern only innovations in the topography of ICs. Software is not covered by the legislation or by any other legislation. The innovative nature of the IC should be established after careful investigation of its three-dimensional representation and its process technology. However, the Patents Office lacks the skills and instruments for doing this. The only firm likely to benefit from this legislation is SGS-Thomson with an annual R&D budget of ECU 190 million.

Greek software houses account for 50% of domestic sales (see chart on p. 64).

They face problems related to investment incentives, legal protection of software and unfair competition. The law provides for investment incentives in cases of investment in real assets whereas software is excluded. Law No 1733/1987 software is not protected as any other patented innovation. A consequence is that there is massive copying of programmes without any penalty. However, software houses are arguing their case with the government.

The third volume of juridical decisions on computers was published in Denmark. A new society was established: Danish Society for Computers and Law, as a forum to enable lawyers to debate all law aspects of computer utilization. And the first Doctors' Degree in EDP law has been awarded.³

II — Social groups

1. Employers' attitudes

German employers consider that dismembering the Federal Post Office into three groups is welcome since this approach fits market needs.⁴ The move is also welcomed by the municipal authorities association, but criticized by the postal workers trade union and by scientists.

Restructuring the Belgian (public) telecommunications service and relaxing the telegraph and telephones monopoly (value-added service will be open to competition, but the network itself will remain a monopoly) has been criticized by employers and trade unions: the former consider it is not liberal enough and even contradictory to European directives being prepared on ONP (open network provision). The trade unions are concerned mainly by the status of the staff.

From 1 January, the Dutch post office and telecoms has been privatized into NV PTT and two subsidiaries: PTT Post and PTT Telecom. Both will be competing with other private corporations on the market both for equipment and services, such as mail delivery. The status of the employees has also changed from civil servants to private employees with collective conventions.

The Confederation of British Industries has launched a task force to examine the increasing skills gap threatening the competitiveness of UK companies. It is examining how to improve the transition from education to work; how to ensure that company training for all employees is seen as an investment to meet skills' needs; how to introduce more market forces into the local delivery of training to reflect both the needs of young people and employers.

The British ITV Association of Joint Employers' body has criticized the government's new framework for industrial training-based local employer groupings based on TECs (see above).

2. Trade unions' attitudes

In the light of experience of EETPU shop stewards with the implementation of no strike agreements in the British engineering industry, the union is pressing for a clause in future agreements to commit companies to training both managers and shop stewards in the implementation of agreements.⁵ The AEU (engineering) trade union has launched a 10-hour interactive training video pack on robotics (the ECU 200 000 costs being shared equally with the Department of Trade and Industry).

The German DGB trade union confederation has criticized the government's design for the future of IT. This, it finds, is dominated by the economic goals of the producer and user industries without giving equal importance to the social and ecological uses of IT and defending workers and society from the negative social consequences. Nor does the concept pay sufficient attention to the controlling potential of IT.⁶ The DGB's document on 'Forecasts of the technical and economic potential of new technologies' proclaims that national development programmes should not just be an instrument for international competitiveness but must also contribute to stopping monopolies (which results from the technologies' complexity, ever shorter product life cycles and mounting R&D costs).⁷ The DGB foresees that new technologies could easily cause three million office jobs to be lost by the year 2000, a figure which could be reduced to two million were new forms of work to be introduced.⁸

A new German trade union has been established by merging two existing unions: IG Medien — Druck und Papier, with 183 000 members. DAG, the German white-collar trade union, has severely criticized VDU work practices: ma-

¹ AG, 8 February 1989.

² *Il Sole*, 24 Ore, 16 February 1989.

³ *Computerworld*, 9 December 1988, 6 January 1989, 24 February 1989.

⁴ *Computer und Recht*, 2/89.

⁵ *Financial Times*, 2 December 1988.

⁶ *Computerwoche*, No 10/1989.

⁷ *Handelsblatt*, 28 December 1988.

⁸ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 14 December 1988.

nuals, agreements are only so much printed paper which employers ignore. For instance, regular medical check-ups are not made and usage requirements are left to the manufacturers and deliverers.¹ There have been a number of developments of interest related more generally to attitudes in Germany. First, the SPD wants to strengthen those entrusted with data protection who should be elected by parliament. The country's informatics society is trying to formulate ethics for computer sciences. A position paper has been produced trying to set out the professional and societal responsibility of computer scientists.² Also, an Institute for information and communication ecology has been established to ensure that the growing acceptance, sometimes euphoric, of new technologies does not cover up the potential dangers.³ Moreover, the Federal Ministry of Justice has produced a discussion paper for a law on product piracy.⁴ And a Society for the written word has been set up aimed at strengthening the meaning of the book compared with new electronic media.⁵

3. Collective agreements and labour disputes

In the UK, BBC journalists are taking industrial action over the health implications of using VDUs. Demands are that a threat to suspend persons refusing to undertake VDU training be withdrawn and that provisions be introduced to enable pregnant women to refuse to work on VDUs and for everyone to take hourly breaks from working on VDUs.⁶ Unions and management at Rowntree Mackintosh are jointly conducting a skills audit of maintenance work to create a new grade of advanced craftsmen with multiple skills to cope with the maintenance needs of computer-controlled equipment. Having identified skill needs and workforce potential, new training programmes would be introduced.⁷

Some 30 printing workers virtually closed down the major press agency in Rome, ANSA, for a month. Printers were resisting a restriction on their job contents due to advancing computerization which enables the share of journalists'

direct inputting to be increased. This is a rare situation in Italian newspapers where previously direct inputting has been resolved by early retirements and retraining schemes.⁸

The trend towards de-unionization in the British printing and publishing industries is continuing as well as within BT, where 4 500 have been offered personal contracts. ICL, the computer company, is bringing 300 of its home-workers (an important method of recruiting and retaining highly skilled staff) into the company pension scheme.⁹

The German federal labour court has decided that part-time workers (unlike full-time workers' regulations) can work more than 50% of their working time at VDUs.¹⁰ The Gelsenkirchen labour court has set a precedent by ruling that giving notice by telefax is not legal since the signature is not the original.¹¹ The federal court made a judgment that the action filed against the management of Adam Opel AG on contracting out data processing to a subsidiary of General Motors against the decision of the majority of the supervisory board could not be upheld.¹²

An agreement at the Scania works in April 1989 (the Netherlands) introduced a 9.5-hour working day, with a 4-day working week of 38 hours, the free day being on a rotating basis. This increases production time from 40 (previously) to 47.5 hours, increases daily truck production from 50 to 60 and will create an estimated 150 more jobs and pay by 5–6%.¹³ A similar approach is being envisaged at Hoogovens (steel). More generally in the Netherlands, there is no discussion as to the employment replacement effects of new technologies; but skilled labour shortages are increasing, some 70 000 commercial service workers and technicians being required.¹⁴

A survey of Italian patents successfully registered abroad indicates that the number of patented innovations is far lower than for other industrialized countries, 30% of total patents were by six major industrial groupings and inventions by smaller though not insignificant firms in traditional industries in particularly in IT.

III — Research

1. Diffusion of new information technologies

Logica¹⁵ estimates that by end-1991 between 1.6 and 2.2 million homes in the UK will be receiving satellite TV, 45% of whom would have their own dish. It estimates the existing receiver base across Europe at some 105 000 which will rise to 950 000 by end-1990.

The UK appears to be the fastest adopter of paperless trading outside the USA, with 1 000 users of electronic data interchange, expanding at a rate of 15% per month.¹⁶

The new year forecast of *Diebold Deutschland* on the development of the entire data-processing market indicates that it will not be very dynamic in the coming five years. The reasons are the saturation of the hardware market, the freezing of EDP budgets, changing economic conditions and skilled labour shortages. Moreover, new concepts and products are not yet marketable (ISDN, mobile telephone, AI). But there will be strong developments as regards markets for standard software, services and electronic publishing.¹⁷

¹ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 7 February 1989.

² *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 29 December 1988.

³ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 13 March 1989.

⁴ *Computer und Recht*, 11/88.

⁵ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 2 January 1989.

⁶ *Financial Times*, 4 February 1989.

⁷ *Financial Times*, 14 February 1989.

⁸ *Il Sole*, 23 Ore, 16 March 1989.

⁹ *Financial Times*, 28 February 1989 and 19 December 1988.

¹⁰ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 10 February 1989.

¹¹ *WSI-Mitteilungen*, 4/88.

¹² *Handelsblatt*, 25 January 1989.

¹³ *De Volkskrant*, 7 January 1989.

¹⁴ *De Volkskrant*, 1 February 1989.

¹⁵ *Satellite television receivers — The European market*, Logica, 1989.

¹⁶ *Financial Times*, 2 November 1988.

¹⁷ *Online*, 1/89.

Software tools on PCs
% market share in 1988

Word processing	26.0
DB management	20.0
Presentation graphics	7.0
Integrated packages	6.5
DTP	6.0
Table calculations	5.5
Project management	3.0
CAD	2.0

A market research institute has been examining error-tolerant (fuzzy-logic) computer systems. Such special computers will assume greater importance in the future, with the total European market reaching an estimated USD 4.82 billion by 1992, of which the UK will account for USD 1.5 billion, Germany USD 1.1 billion and France USD 0.5 billion. The total represents 7% of the total turnover in hardware compared with 1% in 1986.¹ The spread of scanner cash-tills is indicated below.²

Spread of scanner cash-tills

1978	6
1983	172
1985	719
1987	1 544
1988	2 000
1990	3 500
1995	6 000
2000	10 000

The final results of 'FAST II' on the socio-economic impacts of new technologies on Belgium were presented in January 1989. As elsewhere, the areas covered were the relationships between technology, employment and work; the future of services and of communications; the food system; and the management of renewable natural resources. The Belgian programme also sought to have a ripple effect on the potential of the human sciences on public and private decision-making and strengthen university contributions to evaluating new technologies. The studies brought out the

notion of 'the conditions for technological innovation'. Results were hence presented under four headings: the legal and regulatory environment of innovation; innovation, work organization and employment; innovation, teaching and training; and technology, services and innovation. An assessment of FAST II has led to the suggestion that the future programme will focus on technological diffusion and competitiveness and social cohesion.

A Spanish study on the introduction and diffusion of IT³ indicates that the Spanish market is fast expanding and is expected to continue to do so over the next decade. However, the degree of diffusion is lower than in other European countries, and a large number of sectors and companies have been left out of the process. Moreover, there remain many problems of retraining the workforce and in adjusting supply and demand for highly qualified jobs; and the electronics industry has not made the most of the opportunities provided by the growing domestic market.

A second Spanish study⁴ indicates that the total employment of highly qualified IT professionals will increase by 23% between 1988 and 1991 from 10 500 to 13 000. This contrasts with other studies which forecast greater growth.

A third Spanish study⁵ establishes the basic characteristics of the professional profile which Spanish firms require of engineers. Traditional sectors (paper, wood, leather, food, mechanical engineering, etc.) have the highest demand for engineers. The managerial functions in which they are most used are: R&D, sales and general management. The study brings out the importance of sound managerial training and the need of the professionals to be all-round engineers (50% of firms), with only 27% of firms asking only for specialist engineers.

Between one quarter and one third of UK employees are interested in teleworking, which could help public-sector employers with recruitment and retention problems. A survey covering 10% of employees in Danish companies examines attitudes towards IT now and in the

future. 89% of firms have their IT expectations fulfilled, particularly small firms.⁶ Four years of computer experience in Danish municipalities can be summarized as follows:⁷

- (i) inform employees what the technology agreement involves;
- (ii) increase knowledge on how best to establish IT workplaces, taking work environment issues into consideration;
- (iii) give members of technology committees more IT education;
- (iv) in multimunicipality projects, increase the opportunities for information exchanges including with their various administrations and groups of employees.

The Greek Institute of Geological and Mining Research is planning to create a databank for the country's mineral resources.

2. Employment

Industrial employment increased in Italy by 65 000 net in 1988.⁸ The government claims that employers have increased their propensity to hire with increased flexibilization on the labour market. Employment has increased within smaller companies, with the level in those employing more than 500 persons having declined by 2.5% in 1988 compared with 1987. One third of firms claimed to have reduced employment because of technological innovation, this including almost 50% of larger firms.

¹ *Blick durch die Wirtschaft*, 16 January 1989.

² *Handelsblatt*, 6 February 1989.

³ Buesa, M. 'La difusión de las tecnologías de la información en España' in *Información Comercial Española* No 665, January 1989.

⁴ *Cinco Dias*, 18 November 1989.

⁵ *Cinco Dias*, 20 January 1988.

⁶ *Computerworld*, 2 December 1988.

⁷ *Kommuneinformation*.

⁸ Ministero del Lavoro — Rapporto '88: 'Lavoro e politiche dell'occupazione in Italia', Rome 1988.

A survey of changing French employment patterns between 1984 and 1987 by Insee indicates a significant decline in production workers as well as in the least skilled industrial and clerical workers and an increase in computer operators and executives in the tertiary sector. These trends are due to the combined increases in informatics and other technologies, studies, organizational and training activities, on the one hand, and the decline of specific industrial sectors, on the other.¹

The integrated Mediterranean programmes are having a significant impact on the diffusion of IT (and employment) in the Greek public sector. Employment of computer specialists in this sector will rise from the present 3 000 or so persons to 5 000 when current equipment plans are realized. This raises the question of both the quantity and the quality of the staff concerned.

3. Qualifications

The latest survey by the *Computer Users' Yearbook* suggests that in the UK there is a shortfall of some 30 000 data-processing professionals, even though 12 000 more trained computer staff entered the industry than left it in 1987. The greatest demand is for development staff, including systems analysts and programmers.² The Information Technology Skills Agency argues³ for a mixture of measures from industry, the universities and government to alleviate the crisis. Various public employers are adopting novel organizational approaches to enable them to retain the services of their computer staff: having them hired by other authorities which pay significantly more, privatizing services, higher paid shorter-term work contracts with six-monthly pay instalments.⁴

A survey in Italy⁵ indicates that the desirable profile of the IT professional is young, holding an electronic engineering degree, having a propensity towards stability and career within a single firm. But the number of graduates in specialized university courses is stagnating which means that firms are hiring, as second

best, graduates of other faculties or drop-outs for in-house training.

A study of the impact of the use of office technologies in small and medium-sized German industrial firms shows that women are not necessarily the losers in rationalization processes. This is because they are very willing to work in the new environment and keen on learning; employers prefer them if they are young and do not demand too high pay.⁶ Still in Germany, data processing is not considered as a management task but as a specialist function. This is seen from an analysis of jobs advertised in national newspapers. In only 16% of cases did jobs offered for EDP managers underline managerial skills; this compares with about 50% in other managerial areas.⁷

A project on the use of computers in in-service training in Denmark examined the extent to which employee education is changing, both in form and content as a direct or indirect consequence of IT. It found that computer-supported training could only be produced with the cooperation of professionals and its material needed to be easy for teachers to correct and user-friendly. Interactive video helps make difficult subjects comprehensible as well as making them more fascinating and tangible — but it needs careful preparation and is not cheap. The traditional objections to tapes (rewind speed) is not a problem in an educational situation.⁸

A French centre (CPE) has published a study analysing the conditions under which young persons with little schooling can be integrated into, or even underpin, the process of modernizing enterprises. Various experiences demonstrate that new technologies bring in intermediate and 'transversal' functions within companies which then need rethinking and making greatest possible use of. These can be taken up by young persons previously excluded from the world of work provided they are given a certain amount of training. Moreover, firms which have carried out such experiments have produced economically encouraging results (improved productivity and quality) and have impacted on work organization.⁹

4. Working conditions, health and safety

Research commissioned by the German GHBV trade union indicates that work at supermarket tills is more harmful to health than work on the assembly line: between 100 kg and 250 kg are moved every hour, it is monotonous, there is time pressure and noise, all of which are compounded by internal regulations, such as theft and customer relations.¹⁰

Research for the British Health and Safety Executive concludes that all operators of word processors or routine computing operations should take a 15-minute break every 90 minutes.¹¹

New spectacles specially for working at the computer have been developed in Germany which can be adapted to the individual to help concentration when working at a VDU.¹²

The Dutch public-sector trade union, AbvaKabo, has examined the impact of automation in health care. The union advocates a reduction in the current (very considerable) number of (mainly highly skilled) persons interacting with patients. Automation should reduce the administrative tasks of nurses and improve personnel planning.¹³

The SOFI Institute in Göttingen has completed a literature survey of working conditions in the service sector. The aim was to examine on the one hand the impact of new technologies and changing market conditions on productivity and, on the other, the quality of working life particularly with the growth of service-

¹ Insee, Collection D. 130, 1989.

² *Computer Users' Yearbook Survey*, VNU Business Publications.

³ *Changes in IT skills*, TSA, 1988.

⁴ IDS Report No 532, Income Data Services.

⁵ *Il Sole* — 24 Ore, Supplemento Informatica, 2 December 1988.

⁶ *SOFI-Mitteilungen*, No 16, February 1989.

⁷ *Computerwoche*, 17 February 1989.

⁸ *Computerworld*, 17 February 1989.

⁹ Sauvage, P. *Insertion des jeunes et modernisation*, CPE Economica, 1988.

¹⁰ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 9 February 1989.

¹¹ *Financial Times*, 7 January 1989.

¹² *Blick durch die Wirtschaft*, 9 February 1989.

¹³ Evers, G. et al. *De patient moet centraal staan*, Zoetermeer, 1988.

sector employment.¹ SOFI has also started a major research project within the framework of the BMFT (technology ministry) production technology programme 1988–92 to examine the extent to which the organization of work which is based on qualifications will be changed by the drive for productivity and the increasing demands for product innovation and whether the consequence will be the 'scientification' (Verwissenschaftlichung) of the development and construction of machinery.

5. Other fields

Half of the British and German companies surveyed (but 75% of French) on the implications of 1992 for data-processing departments and systems do not consider that there is a need to integrate IT in their planning for the single market.²

A German study has found no direct causal relationship between corporate success and IT use, but it did bring out the value of using IT and information management more generally as a strategic weapon, particularly in management control and reducing administrative costs.³

A new VDU has been developed in Dortmund (Germany) which overcomes the visual problems of existing monitors. Adaptation to lighting at the work-station is no longer necessary, which overcomes a variety of restrictions such as protection from direct daylight, surrounding lighting is no longer dependent on screen lighting and workplace lay-out can be changed without costs.⁴

A computer system recognizing 3 755 Chinese characters has been developed in Germany; automatic translation remains impossible since a character can have more than 12 meanings and the computer understands three at most.⁵

An interdisciplinary team at Bochum University has been carrying out a project designing the factory of the future. Acknowledging its respect for the project, the German research association (DFG) has created a special research

area of this field. The Bochum group's approach contrasts with the CIM structures so far in that it caters for semi-autonomous and hence mainly decentralized work groups. In addition to the economic advantages, this approach is socially acceptable. Through decentralization the existing jobs of skilled workers are maintained and new ones created. The research design also envisages testing the project's result through a model factory to be established on the university campus.⁶

At the second Automated manufacturing systems Europe trade fair, at Genoa in February, a scale model of an automated factory (Impact) for the assembly of electronic control units was presented and the employers' confederation announced that it was creating an automated factory research unit in which members could participate on a pre-competitive basis.

In an attempt to counter the tendency of trade fairs to advertise only the advantages of individual firms' products, the First Regensburg EDP Forum provided a series of seminars on the advantages and disadvantages of various computer systems and software packages.⁷

In Greece, Rainbow Computers (representatives of Apple) have organized five universities into the Apple University Consortium.

- (i) easily transportable diskettes open up possibilities for large-scale thefts;
- (ii) mutual monitoring is narrowed as an individual can produce, apply and use the data;
- (iii) often there is the possibility of using, unnoticed, sensitive information.

Hence, the use of private PCs in the office should be forbidden.⁸

The Belgian cabinet has approved the establishment of a *carrefour* social-security databank. This will be a common reference for all bodies dealing with social-security files. Each individual DB will remain separate, but they will be interconnected by *carrefour*. The identification number will be that of the National Register of the Population.

Ingepol is a databank being established by the police force and gendarmerie in Luxembourg. It appears that it will be an exception to the 1979 law on data protection since short-term DBs will be created which only require authorization by the Ministry of Justice.

The Danish taxation minister called in a consultancy organization to see what could be done to reduce the ECU 22 million deficit of the taxation directorate. Some figures are given in the chart. It would be possible to reduce the deficit by 75% in one year through job losses and user payments, but more job losses would be needed subsequently, particularly of low-skilled clerical workers.⁹

Danish taxpayers should soon be able to call their bank to check that their taxes have been paid; the Data Surveillance Authority has accepted the idea because a code ensures that only the taxpayer in question has access to his/her data. Banks can receive information

IV — Experiences in specific sectors

1. State and local administration

The German federal commissioner for data protection is concerned about the use of PCs in public administration, a fear now mirrored by the Saarland commissioner for the following reasons:

¹ *Mitteilungen des SOFI*, No 16, February 1989.

² *Managing IT*, Price Waterhouse.

³ *Online*, 12/88.

⁴ *AFA-Informationen*, September/October 1988.

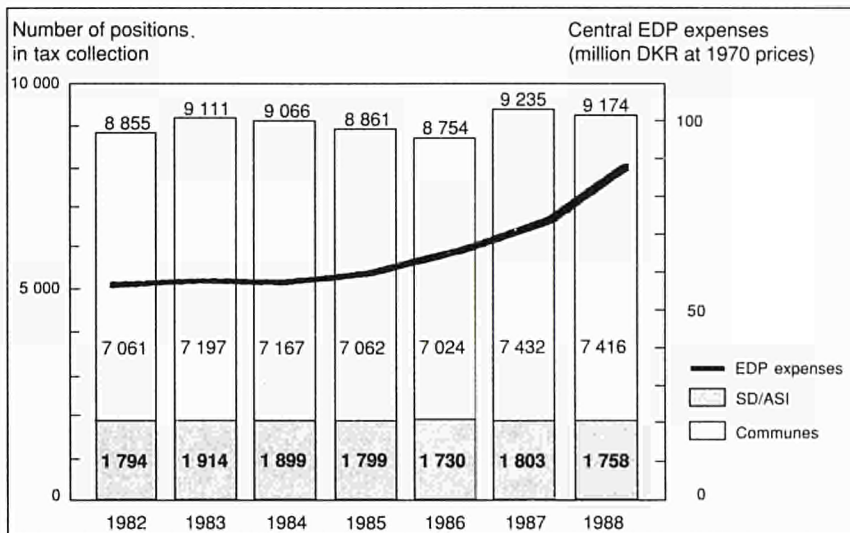
⁵ *Handelsblatt*, 14 February 1989.

⁶ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 15 March 1989.

⁷ *Blick durch die Wirtschaft*, 30 December 1988.

⁸ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 27 January 1989.

⁹ *Computerworld*, 10 February 1989.



on the last three taxation years, which is often necessary to obtain a loan. The taxation authorities expect to make money on the system since the banks have to pay for the information.¹

The Irish Department of Social Welfare's computer system is enabling the government to become much more selective in targeting welfare increases to specific groups in need. The real breakthrough has come with the implementation of a text management system on its huge filing system. The system searches a number of files and draws information from them, with 'near similar' search characteristics. It will enable for instance, entitlements under different numbers over a period of years to be pulled together. The system is revolutionary from a fraud prevention viewpoint, spotting discrepancies for applications for different benefits as well as two applications from the same address or the same person applying from different addresses — 'Big Brother' concepts at the same time. Discussions are under way between the Revenue Commissioners and the Department on issuing a single number for each person for both tax and social-welfare purposes.²

The computerization of Greek ministries is continuing: recently, the Ministry of Justice established a directorate for organization and informatics staffed with

five computer specialists who are computerizing the files for payroll, summons, decisions and mortgage registry. A pilot computerization project covers the Supreme Court, the Court of Appeals of Greater Athens, the Administrative Court and the Prosecutor's Office.

Datacentralen, the large, publicly-owned data-processing company, has lost work to extend the public employment service's (AD) pilot computerized placement system, 'AF-Match', to cover all 150 employment agencies in Denmark. AD owns the computer equipment while the private company runs it at an annual saving of some ECU 13 million. Datacentralen, while recognizing its costs are higher, responds that it is necessary for the public sector to have its own data-processing company to provide confidential services in such fields as taxation, defence and public finance.³

2. Public services

British Rail, one of the UK's largest users of personal computers, was attacked by the '1813' virus in 1988 which eliminated programs run every Friday the 13th.

As the financial crisis of FS, Italian State railways, continues, its modernization programmes for computer control

and management are being reviewed. The idea was to link the already existing systems dedicated to particular functions (timetables, traffic movements, management of rolling stock, pay and personnel) to a centralized data file available to top management.⁴

Businessmen do not use the services of the three EuroInfoCentres in Greece. They show distrust and do not discuss their problems with the centres' staff.

An informatics college has been established in Greece offering college-level education in analysis and programming. Participants can subsequently continue their education at the University of Avignon, France.

3. Manufacturing

The British GEC together with Siemens made a hostile bid for Plessey which was referred to the Monopolies and Mergers Commission and investigated by the European Commission.

The German GfR has launched a field survey of the use of CAD-CAM. Twenty-seven companies with 40 000 employees and some ECU 3.2 billion turnover were surveyed. The conclusion was that the productivity potential has been insufficiently used. CAD is generally only used to produce better and more rapidly enhanced schematic drawings (lay-outs, electrical systems). Little attention is paid to simplifying norms, reducing the numbers of components and increasing search opportunities for components and drawings, precisely the areas where productivity potential is high.⁵

IBM is the leading company in the Spanish hardware market (ECU 1.35 billion in 1988), with Telefónica de España

¹ *Politiken*, 17 December 1988.

² *Business and Finance*, 16 March 1989.

³ *Computerworld*, 20–27 January 1989, 17 February 1989.

⁴ *Il Sole*, 24 Ore, 17 March 1989.

⁵ *Handelsblatt*, 25 January 1989.

second (ECU 0.32 billion) though only with commercial activities.¹ Sales of CAD-CAM hardware and software doubled in 1988 from ECU 0.15 billion in 1987.²

Employment in Ireland's software industry rose between 1982 and 1988 from 1 250 to 2 700, with the industry currently worth ECU 170 million with more than half production for export (the annual amount spent globally on software is ECU 72 billion). A report on the future of the industry in Ireland estimates that it could employ 10 000 by 1995 and makes recommendations on measures to enhance the chances of achieving this figure: closer public-sector industry links; basic education and training for computing and related disciplines should contain specific business skills elements; firms should collaborate in joint marketing ventures; and companies should establish better relations with the financial community.³

A study⁴ of the shift from automation to modernization of the new Renault R 19 engine assembly indicates the movement away from prototypical division of labour into thinkers and doers. The socio-technical project approach adopted for designing a new sheet-metal manufacturing line brought in the following procedures:

- (a) studying simultaneously and interactively the technical project together with the future organization of the workshop;
- (b) defining and planning actions on the basis of both social and technical variables;
- (c) involving the workers in the design and application of the project.

4. Banking and finance

In November 1988, four leading insurance underwriters in the UK started sending claims to underwriters electronically via an IBM-managed network.⁵

NatWest Bank is spending some ECU 4 billion over five years to update its computer systems, which have been de-

signed around account numbers rather than customer profiles which makes it difficult to market all the activities of the Bank.⁶

Lloyds of London has launched the first off-the-shelf policy to cover losses by computer viruses.⁷

Integration of the Dutch Postbank and private-clearing banks' money-clearing systems is called BeaNet. A crucial issue for resolution was the common use of the teller system. BeaNet has now published the technical conditions for teller systems attached to the electronic clearing net.⁸

The Danish Technology Council and banking organizations have jointly examined the employment (quantity and quality) consequences of six large automation projects. This clearly proves that new technology has not caused increased unemployment since there are currently many more employees in banking than in 1978. Secondly, IT has enhanced employees' working situations, with a positive distribution of responsibility towards the individual employee which results in improved job content and increased job satisfaction. The same pattern was observed in all six banks: the IT initiative came from the top and tended to be resisted by employees. This resistance has gradually weakened and replaced by active cooperation as the employees have been directly involved in the implementation process. But the users have not expressed much interest in influencing the technical aspects of the systems nor with their strategic design; rather, they sought greater influence on everyday subjects such as work organization and having educational and developmental opportunities.⁹

The Brussels (CATS) and Copenhagen stock exchanges are now in the process of being computerized.

As regards the retail trade, the British retail chemists, Boots, electronic point of sales (EPOS) system (currently covering 130 of its 1 000 shops) has resulted in a cultural change in the buying and marketing department, slimming inventory and cutting out unprofitable lines.

5. Printing industry

British employers and management have jointly issued a guide to help cope with growing skills shortages. It urges employers to alter their recruitment and training policies and to monitor the gender and ethnic origins of their employees.¹⁰

In Germany employers and unions have agreed to 90% of workers not working on Saturday — except for newspapers and periodicals for which workers are only allowed 13 Saturdays a calendar year — except if there is a company-level agreement when the paper appears on Mondays.¹¹

The printing of computer manuals is booming in Ireland, and was worth ECU 95 million in 1988. The list of investments of the Industrial Development Authority is in fact headed by one such company. The growth has resulted from the constantly increasing demand for computer hardware and software leading to a proliferation in the manuals market. To win the confidence of the major multinational corporations Irish companies have had to change management styles, with guaranteed quality and on-time delivery as the decisive factors.

6. Telecommunications

In December BT (UK) signed separate agreements with STET (Italy) and Telefónica (Spain) to cooperate in such areas as network modernization, value-added services and international telecommunications. Earlier agreements

¹ *Cinco Dias*, 18 November 1988.

² *Cinco Dias*, 5 December 1988.

³ *Technology Ireland*, February 1989.

⁴ *Annales des mines*, December 1988.

⁵ *Financial Times*, 7 November 1988.

⁶ *Financial Times*, 26 January 1989.

⁷ *Financial Times*, 3 March 1989.

⁸ *Computable*, 3 March 1989.

⁹ *Computerworld*, 3 February 1989.

¹⁰ *Financial Times*, 15 January 1989.

¹¹ *Handelsblatt*, 10 March 1989.

were with AT&T (USA) and KDD (Japan).¹ Telefonica and 20 other European firms created a common company (MDNS) to be involved in managing value-added services and the international communication of data.

In Italy the whole institutional framework is changing, with all public telephone and other communications service networks being consolidated into a single holding company, SIP. This is taking over the State's services and staff. SIP is planning to spend ECU 21 billion to 1992, with 70% being devoted towards digitalizing the basic telephone service, and 10% to telecommunications services. But the full-scale development of ISDN networks has been postponed, though a pilot operation will be launched involving a limited number of major corporations. Sales of facsimile machines are booming as are 'radio-mobiles' — a huge investment is required allowing for the operation of 6 500 radio channels by 1992.

Oftel (the British telecommunications industry supervisory body) is going ahead with the UK's private telecommunications networks market. The intention is to provide a boost for new services over telephone lines and to create further competition for BT. At present private network operators are severely restricted in the extent to which voice can be carried on the network, although they are almost completely free to send data down networks. This has meant that companies have been able to set up their own internal telephone networks but cannot connect with other companies via this network. The new approach will allow companies to connect with other companies.

The process of liberalizing telecommunications in Spain is continuing. But there has been a delay in drawing up technical regulations specifying the conditions for the homologation (recognition) of different hardware which, according to private telecommunications companies, is preventing them from defining their future business strategy. Moreover, the lack of coordination and of development of RDSI (digital network of integrated services) risks isolating Spain

from other Community countries since it is not heeding the 1986 decision of the European Council of Ministers.

The British Monopolies and Mergers Commission has reported on chatlines and other message services. This follows abuses, with children incurring large telephone bills without their parents' knowledge.

The UK Cable Authority will be awarding up to 30 cable TV franchises in 1989-90, pushing for the early start of operations.²

A German computer freak was arrested in March 1989 for spying after having used his home computer to break into a number of sensitive computer systems in Germany and abroad. The Hamburg Chaos Computer Club had warned German Security agents in mid-1987 that attempts to do this were being made.³

Teleshopping through BTX accounts for 0.03% (ECU 48 million) of retail sales in Germany, 60% of which is accounted for by bulk purchases. There will be no significant increase in sales before one million households have access to BTX (the current figure being 150 000). Other types of teleshopping are virtually excluded by the legal limitations on provocative advertising (combining conversation and advertising, games for prizes) and the inability to compensate for the experience of going out to buy.⁴

Telecom Éireann's (TE) fastest-growing business is fixed connection services comprising circuits and networks made available to customers for their exclusive use, generally to support voice and data applications. Such services are an indispensable part of the communications requirements of any company and are at present based mainly on analogue technology. New applications requiring large information transfer and the increasing use of private integrated networks and wide-area networks have produced a demand currently growing at over 30% per annum for leasing high-speed digital circuits and networks. TE is currently installing single network infrastructure comprising analogue and digital cross-connect and network management systems. These facilities will be

connected by dedicated digital transmission links and managed by a self-contained overlay network: Data and special services network.

7. Automation

The British Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service has studied the effects of new office technology on secretaries: little effort is devoted to producing job descriptions and the role and the individual are consequently devalued. New technology should allow secretaries to take on more responsibility, but if this is imposed without proper training, it can lead to alienation and demotivation.⁵

A major book (in Dutch) on office automation⁶ argues that each successive phase of office automation needs to be tackled creatively with the motivated attention of all partners. The book covers the measurement of office productivity, job analysis, the comparison of costs and benefits, the effectiveness of information systems and different models for measuring the quality of work.

Investment at the Fiat Cassino plant was nearly ECU 1.2 billion. A total of 439 robots are being used to help produce 1 800 cars a day. Robotization has been extended from body assembling, painting, etc. to some final assembly and fitting operations. The company considers that the plant represents the top standards for automated production plants: 304 industrial computers are used for process controls mainly connected through LANs using optical fibres.⁷

An Italian research consortium has been established with Eureka-AMR (Advanced Mobile Robot) finance and

¹ *Financial Times*, 19 December 1988.

² *Financial Times*, 17 January 1989.

³ *Frankfurter Rundschau*, 6 March 1989.

⁴ *Handelsblatt*, 16 January 1989.

⁵ *New office technology and the changing role of the secretary*, ACAS-Work Research Unit, 1988.

⁶ Wentink, T. and Zanders, H.: *Automatisering, Productiviteit en Kwaliteit van Kantoorarbeid*, Deventer, 1988.

⁷ *Il Sole*, 24 Ore, 7 March 1989.

French and Spanish partners to build two prototype third generation robots, with artificial vision, to use in dangerous environments.¹

The Spanish project for installing computer networks in hydrological basins to prevent natural disasters and manage hydraulic resources (SAIH programme) has practically come to a standstill because of lack of resources.

8. Private sector

A German institute (DIW) has examined the use of private households for IT goods and services. Thus, 0.2% of households have a BTX connection and videotext is below the 10% mark and 14% have cable TV. 30% have video-recorders. Nevertheless, private expenditure

on information and communications goods rose from 2% to 6.5% between 1963 and 1983 though, for a variety of reasons, this trend will not be continued: slower increase in household incomes, more to be spent on leisure, etc.²

In Belgium, several pilot videotext projects have been launched for the general public. They use the RTT's videotext system started in 1988 linked into the French Minitel. Telebanking has been started in Belgium, but only companies can afford it.

The Athens Trade Association is making preparations for the introduction of a videotext system. Technical assistance is being provided by the French Chambers of Commerce. Information will be provided on market regulations, labour issues, market trends and business opportunities. Access will be through videotext terminals or PCs.

9. Legal and ethical

The impact of IT on penal law is significant. It is difficult to translate traditional concepts, such as theft, into modern terms applicable to the use of informatics. This is no new phenomenon: the same problem confronted those who had to define theft of electricity. A new conceptual body has been established in the Netherlands to such legal offences as illegal copying, illegal information, storage and hacking.³

¹ ADN-Kronos, *Supplemento Tecnogica e Ricerca*, 14 February 1989.

² *Wirtschaft und Produktivität*, 1/89.

³ AG, January 1989.

Equal treatment for men and women

Actions and guidelines

The evaluation of Community policy on equal opportunities

Toledo, April 1989

The Commission of the European Communities and the Council under its Spanish Presidency organized a major seminar in Toledo from 24 to 26 April 1989 devoted to the 'Evaluation of Community policy on equal opportunities for women and men: outlook for 1992', during which representatives of national administrations, the two sides of industry and women's rights groups in the Community were invited to assess the situation after three years' implementation of the interim Community programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women (1986-90) and submit proposals for a third programme to commence in 1991.

It was particularly important for this meeting to yield good results, since these were to provide the Ministers of the Twelve and the representatives responsible for women's issues with the basis for discussions at an informal meeting on equal opportunities for men and women, to be held in Toledo, on 27 and 28 April 1989, with Mrs Matilde Fernandez, the Spanish Minister for Social Affairs, in the Chair.

I — The genesis of the seminar

The seminar was organized in response to a number of needs, two of its main objectives being to examine the results of the second Community action programme on the promotion of equal opportunities for women (1986-90) and consider the measures still to be taken within the framework of the third programme to be prepared by 1991.

It was intended that six working groups should discuss the following major topics:

- (a) legislation;
- (b) positive discrimination;
- (c) employment;
- (d) education/training/new technologies;
- (e) division of responsibilities;
- (f) promoting awareness/information.

The Commission, however, following the example of the European Parliament's Committee on Women's Rights, thought that the next programme should take account of the impact of the completion of the single market on the economic position of women in the Community, with particular reference to their employment and mobility as workers. That is why it gave special emphasis to information, employment and childcare, all of which are now the subject of specific Community studies or proposals.

market by 1992 does not entail further discrimination against women on the employment market.

In the light of present demographic trends, characterized by increasing labour shortages and a resultant need to employ women more effectively, two fundamental concepts were defined as a basis for the third Community action programme; namely the central role of women in the social and economic development of Europe and the need to implement specific policies to promote equality by coordinating the activities of the responsible bodies at Community and national level.

All the working parties stressed two factors which are fundamental to any strategy aimed at equality — the availability of sufficient funds and the need to inform and involve the two sides of industry. Major efforts would be required in these two key areas, before further action could be considered.

Each working group also drew up guidelines for the future Community action programme.

1. Information was recognized by all as one of the absolute priorities for the equal-opportunities policy with the inevitable corollary of the need for an increase in the corresponding budget allocation.

There was also a call for legislation establishing the principle of non-discrimination in relation to the image and position of women in the media, the promotion of action by women's groups, particularly, through the creation of a women's Community lobby, campaigns of the Prix Niké type, the formation of European databanks and the establishment of a European institute for women's studies.

Lastly, both policy-makers and the media should spread the idea that equal opportunities represent a valuable contribution to the management of human resources.

2. Employment, and in particular female employment, is one of the major sources of concern as regards the Community economy after 1992. Women

II — The conclusions reached at the seminar

There was unanimous agreement on the need to adopt a third Community action programme on equal opportunities for women after 1990, as well as on the urgency of practical measures to ensure that the cost of completing the single

could constitute a crucial element in the workforce over the next few years, if economic and social structures are adapted to give them greater access to the labour market.

In this context, it seemed particularly necessary to:

- (i) draft Community legislation to protect women in untypical jobs (part-time, temporary or seasonal work), those employed at home or on piece-work, and the self-employed including women agricultural workers;
- (ii) eliminate the social and legal obstacles impeding the access of migrant female workers to the labour market;
- (iii) introduce fiscal reforms designed to promote the independence of wives and mothers;
- (iv) integrate local development, especially via financing by the structural Funds within the framework of local employment initiatives.

3. Childcare is currently one of the Commission's principal subjects of study with the Childcare Network set up in 1986. It was also one of the main discussion topics in the working group on the division of family and professional responsibilities.

Noting that family responsibilities are still borne mainly by women, the group called, in particular, for:

- (i) the adoption of a Directive on parental leave, providing for remuneration, guaranteed reinstatement, flexible working-hours and child-minding facilities;
- (ii) the extension of the scope of Community action, in particular to cover children over the age of 10, and the division of responsibilities between men, women and the authorities at all levels;
- (iii) studies aimed at the overall integration of the various aspects of the problem with a view to gaining a better understanding of the actual situation, including costs, particularly those resulting from the lack of services;

- (iv) a reappraisal of budgets;
- (v) the organization, before 1992, of a European conference on the progress and future prospects of child-care networks.

4. Legislation on equal opportunities for men and women is still far from complete or fully applied in the Member States. Consequently, Community legislation should continue to be orientated towards the attainment of the three following objectives:

- (i) the more effective use of existing legislation based, in particular, on measures to encourage the Member States to correct national shortcomings in the application of Community regulations and eliminate any loopholes, especially as regards the burden of proof, social security and the protection of women workers in untypical employment or having self-employed status;
- (ii) the coordination of equal opportunities and general policies aimed at improving the impact of the former on the labour market, especially on the basis of research covering national regulations and measures relating to employment, working hours, education or child-minding, from the standpoint of their effect on women on the labour market, female mobility after 1992 and, in the context of the completion of the single market, the obligation of Community employers to respect the principles of equality;
- (iii) the provision of information for, and the promotion of awareness among the various legal circles concerned, especially through the publication by the Commission of an annual report on the application of the principles of equality, and analyses of such particular problems as job classification, indirect discrimination and sexual harassment, continuous training and information for judges, lawyers, works inspectors and others: sectorial officials, on the one hand, and schools and universities on the other, and, the compilation of a compendium database covering Community and national equal-opportunity regulations.

5. Education and training constitute the basis of any measures designed to promote equal opportunities. The education, training and new technology working group therefore stressed the need for continued action in these fields.

As regards education, it is still necessary:

- (i) on the one hand, to promote awareness among decision-makers that equality of opportunity is an essential prerequisite for the attainment of high educational standards; and
- (ii) on the other, to ensure that syllabuses provide, in particular, for measures giving girls greater access to new technologies, a strong egalitarian element in the training of teachers and educational counsellors based, in particular, on access to equal-opportunities databanks, and the development of specific pedagogical strategies for teaching science and technology to girls.

As regards training, it is also particularly important to:

- (i) provide support structures for training women, including child-minding facilities and appropriate timetables;
- (ii) strengthen and coordinate the Community networks offering a wider choice of profession and IRIS;
- (iii) allocate more financial resources to IRIS, and the new Petra programme on the training of young people;
- (iv) implement complementary national strategies for the education, training and recruitment of women.

6. Positive discrimination was the final item on the agenda.

'It is now time to move from the experimental to the practical stage', was the watchword of the positive discrimination working group, which indicated a number of priorities in this field:

- (i) the general strategy must take account of the preconditions for the success of proposed measures, such as the definition of quantifiable objectives, compliance with which can be checked, the use of methods

appropriate to such objectives and of evaluation and follow-up machinery;

(ii) the measures must be incorporated into the relevant collective agreements and be the subject of social dialogue, at both national and Community level, particularly where initiated by trade unions;

(iii) employment prospects for women could be improved, for example by drawing attention to jobs not yet affected by sexual discrimination, such as new technologies, providing women with a wider choice of professions and intensifying training;

(iv) databases containing all the information on the subject should be created

and a working party set up to examine this topic;

(v) the Commission and the Member States should jointly finance the measures in question to a greater extent, and encourage the absorption of more women by the political structures, especially at decision-making levels.

III — After Toledo

Following the Toledo seminar and the informal meeting of the Ministers of the Twelve and the representatives re-

sponsible for women's issues on equal opportunities for men and women, the Commission and, in particular, its unit 'Action on employment and equality for women' considered the conclusions reached, in order to take account of the essential recommendations in the third Community programme in favour of equal opportunities for women. The relevant proposal is due to be submitted to the Council in 1990 and enter into force as of 1991. In the meantime, the Commission intends to give priority to action in the fields of information, employment and childcare in an attempt to ensure that women are fully prepared for the role they will be required to play in the enlarged Community market after 1992.

Free movement — Social protection and living conditions

Actions and guidelines

A European over-60s' card

I — Introduction

Like all Western industrial societies, the EC Member States are experiencing population ageing. As the number of people surviving to old age increases and the birth-rate declines, the proportion of the population accounted for by senior citizens continues to grow. In 1985, there were 59.3 million people aged 60 and over in the Community and by the year 2000, this figure will have reached 70 million, representing 20% of the total population.

It is not solely by virtue of their numbers that senior citizens are of increasing significance in the social and economic life of the Community and its Member States. With the spread of occupational pension schemes in recent decades many pensioners have a higher disposable income than ever before. The lower retirement age, better health and an increase in the means of transport will enable an unprecedented number of senior citizens to enjoy an active retirement, with over 70% no longer in employment by the year 2000. The rise of mass tourism offers senior citizens opportunities for travel which were never available during their working life. It has been estimated that over 50% of senior citizens (37 million) will take holidays, seven million in another Member State, and five million outside the Community. Their importance as holiday-makers is such that many commercial and public organizations in the leisure, transport and tourist sectors offer special products and concessions for senior citizens, such as off-peak or out-of-season reductions to coincide with periods when younger people are unable to travel because of work or family commitments.

According to a feasibility study undertaken by the NFB¹ and analysed in a previous edition of *Social Europe*,² a 5% annual increase in the number of holidays taken by senior citizens within the Community

would result in the spending of an additional ECU 80 million therein. The labour-intensive hotel and restaurant sectors will benefit in the southern Member States — Greece, Portugal, Spain, Italy and France — which attract large numbers of holiday-makers. At the same time, this phenomenon will have a favourable economic impact on banking, insurance, administration and travel agencies in the northern Member States from which they come. The transport sector should benefit throughout the Community.

II — The Commission Recommendation concerning a European over-60s' card

In most of the Member States, senior citizens enjoy a number of concessions (exemption from or reduced charges), particularly in the case of public transport and cultural activities (museums, exhibitions, cinemas, etc.).

The EEC Treaty stipulates that when senior citizens visit another Member State, for a holiday for example, they are entitled to the concessions available in that country.

In order to facilitate and promote the exercise of this right, it was considered necessary to introduce an easily recognizable concessions card for Community citizens over the age of 60.

Such a card had already been recommended by the Commission in its communication to the Council of 3 January 1986 on Community action in the field of tourism³ and requested by the European Parliament in its Resolution of 14 May 1986 on Community measures to improve the situation of senior citizens.⁴

It was also the subject of Commission Recommendation 89/350/EEC of 10 May 1989. This states that the individual Member States should be responsible for producing the card, issuing it to the beneficiaries and informing the departments and services concerned.

¹ Driest, P. *Feasibility study on a European reduction scheme for seniors*, NFB, The Hague, The Netherlands, 1988.

² 'A European seniors' concession card'. *Social Europe* 1/88, p. 66.

³ OJ C 114, 14. 5. 1986, p. 11.

⁴ OJ C 148, 16. 6. 1986, p. 61.



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In addition, the Commission will prepare a senior citizens' guide containing information provided by the Member States on national concessions currently available and the services responsible for issuing the card.

The card should be introduced by 1 January 1991 at the latest.

It seems advisable at this point to examine the scope of the Recommendation and the concept of the card in greater detail. The present Recommendation seeks to increase awareness of existing entitlements.

As such, it calls on the Member States to:

- (i) take the necessary steps to introduce a European over-60s' card,

concerning advantages available within the fields of public transport and cultural activities;

- (ii) produce a card corresponding to the model shown in the Annex to the Recommendation, for issue to the persons concerned in the most appropriate manner;
- (iii) take appropriate steps to inform the departments and services concerned whose task it shall be to grant special conditions and reductions to cardholders.

Member States must notify the Commission of the special conditions and reductions to which cardholders are entitled in their territory and of the services which are responsible for issuing the card.

On basis of this information, the Commission will draw up a guide for the elderly.

Before 1 March 1991, the Member States must inform the Commission of the measures taken with a view to implementing the system.

The standard card model is shown in an annex to the Recommendation. As regards form and format it will resemble either a passport or a plastic identity card. On the front it will bear the name of the issuing Member State and state that the cardholder benefits from all advantages available within the fields of public transport and cultural activities to Community citizens over the age of 60.

On the back it will bear the name, forename, date of birth, nationality, ad-

dress and photograph of the cardholder, the issuing authority's stamp and the date of issue.

III — Conclusion

The introduction of the card should encourage older people to take greater advantage of the opportunities currently available in the Community for improving the quality of their lives, thereby increasing their autonomy and involvement in economic and social life.

The participation of all the Member States is however a precondition of the

success of this new project. They will be required to take the necessary measures to issue the card and provide information on the services offering concessions.

It is clear that the proposed European over-60s' card will have a greater impact if it is properly promoted among senior citizens and bodies already granting concessions.

Furthermore, the undeniable potential for economic development offered by the card can be realized only if the authorities and commercial organizations which could grant concessions are made aware of its economic implications for their region and/or field of activity.

The beneficiaries must also be able to obtain the card easily at a number of

places. Travel agencies, banks, post offices and some old people's organizations could undertake distribution.

Within the framework of this joint endeavour, the public authorities, the private sector and voluntary organizations must work to make 1992 and a 'people's Europe' a reality for all the Community's senior citizens.¹

¹ Commission communication to Parliament of 24 June 1988 entitled 'A people's Europe' (COM(88) 331 final).

Four-year rolling programme 1989-92 of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

Preface

The adoption of the four-year rolling programme 1989-92 marks an important stage in the history of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.

This programme takes its place, in effect, in the context of Community policies and objectives leading up to 1992. The Single European Act, and the prospect of completing the broad internal market have given a new impetus to the Community and renewed the plan for building Europe, even though this prospect is a cause of both fear and hope among European citizens. In these circumstances, and given its mission, the Foundation has chosen to emphasize the new possibilities of action to improve living and working conditions in Europe.

It should also be underlined that this programme is the outcome of numerous complex discussions, and of an agreement, in a spirit of social dialogue, between the groups constituting the Administrative Board of the Foundation, representing governments, employer organizations and worker organizations in Member States, as well as the Commission of the European Communities.

During the preparation of the programme, the Foundation's management and personnel have had many working meetings with officials from various departments of the Commission; exchanges and consultations have also taken place with various groups in the Economic and Social Committee and the European Parliament.

The preparation of this programme has allowed the Foundation to reconsider its role, its workings, its methods and its themes of work. There has been considerable development, even though the areas envisaged are often continuations of work previously done (the

list of areas studied by the Foundation since its inception is given in an annex). The four-year programme constitutes the framework within which the work programmes of the Foundation will be defined on a yearly basis, from 1989 to 1992.

In accordance with the Regulation governing the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, the four-year rolling programme 1989-92 was submitted to the Committee of Experts for their opinion, at their meeting on 24 and 25 May 1988; it was approved by the Administrative Board at its meeting of 9 September 1988, in Dublin.

Clive Purkiss, Director
Eric Verborgh, Deputy Director

Introduction

The regulation establishing the Foundation (Council Regulation No 1365/75) states that the aim of the Foundation 'shall be to contribute to the planning and establishment of better living and working conditions through action designed to increase and disseminate knowledge likely to assist this development.'

Article 2 continues: 'With this aim in view, the tasks of the Foundation shall be to develop and to pursue ideas on the medium- and long-term improvement of living and working conditions in the light of practical experience and to identify factors leading to change. The Foundation shall take the relevant Community policies into account when carrying out its tasks. It shall advise the Community institutions on foreseeable objectives and guidelines by forwarding in particular scientific information and technical data.'

In setting out the reasons for the establishment of the Foundation, the same regulation takes account of the fact that 'the problems presented by the improvement of living and working conditions in modern society are increasingly numerous and complex', and considers it important 'that the appropriate Community action should be built up on an interdisciplinary scientific basis and at the same time that employers and workers should be associated in the action undertaken.'

Thirteen years later, these issues remain as vital as ever, even if, as indicated below, the Community context in 1988 differs from that of 1975. Thus, the report on the Foundation which the European Parliament drew up in 1987 (OJ C 99, 3. 4. 1987), emphasizes that the Foundation 'is essentially an important forum for social dialogue at European level' and that such dialogue 'is particularly important in the light of the profound changes in living and working conditions caused by the introduction of new technologies.'

Context

In drawing up its four-year rolling programme — which covers the years 1989 to 1992 — the Foundation took into account major changes within European society which will be bound to have an impact on the quality of life in the Community during the 1990s.

These changes are apparent particularly in the following areas:

- (i) demographic trends and social stratification: the ageing of the population of Europe, differences in life expectancy, increased length of life and increased duration of studies, the new poor, marginalization;
- (ii) technological change: the increasing impact of new technologies on living and working conditions, the development of new technologies (biotechnology, telecommunications, etc.);
- (iii) the increasing importance of the services sector (public and private), in proportion to agriculture and industry;
- (iv) the labour market: unemployment, new forms of work and activity, flexibility, SMEs;
- (v) increasing awareness of the environment; policies and 'preventive' measures, education of the public;
- (vi) demands for communication, dialogue and participation: in society (information and communication, citizens' rights, public involvement, education, media) and in the workplace (social dialogue, rights to information and consultation, participation in the management of enterprises).

Within the Community these changes will be linked with an event of great significance: the projected completion of the internal market by the end of 1992.

Completion of the internal market will facilitate the circulation of goods, people, services and capital within an integrated Europe. The aim is to give a fresh impetus to economic growth and job creation in the Community and, consequently, to the improvement of living and working conditions.

These objectives cannot, however, be achieved in isolation. Various European authorities have stressed the importance of developing the European social area (European Parliament, the Chanterie report; Economic and Social Committee, the Beretta report), while, in a report prepared at the Commission of the European Communities ('The social dimension of the internal market', *Social Europe*, special issue, 1988), the point is made emphatically that coping with the social dimension of the internal market will be a key factor in its success or failure. The conclusions of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers after the European Council meeting at Hanover also point in this direction.

In this connection, the provisions of the Single European Act give new instruments to the Community institutions for the purpose of developing social policies and strengthening economic and social cohesion in the Community.

Particular emphasis is placed on the development of dialogue between the social partners, and it must be stressed that the Foundation — among other agencies — provides a forum for research and debate on a number of economic and social challenges facing the European Community.

Building on its strengths, and in particular on the findings of studies and work carried out in previous programmes, the Foundation — keeping to its own special remit — will develop its activities over the years 1989-92 within one overall perspective: '1992 and beyond: New opportunities for action to improve living and working conditions in Europe'.

The contribution of the Foundation

Within the context of the changes mentioned above, the Foundation will take up an active stance, not simply reacting to problems or possible imbalances, but rather seeking to anticipate events so that they or their consequences can be controlled more effectively.

Thus, particular attention will be paid to innovative experience, the factors involved in change, and the extent to which experience is transferable, so that problems in the future may be more effectively taken into account and resolved.

Research into risk prevention and studies of adaptation to change will not simply involve descriptive research, but will rather seek to provide guidelines for action. The methods and mechanisms by which living and working conditions can be improved will be of particular concern, leading to recommendations for policy, practice or other appropriate action.

Moreover, as the aim of the Foundation is to operate in the medium- and long-term perspective, its activities will be designed to support political and strategic choices.

In implementing its programme, the Foundation will:

- (a) give a balanced importance to living and working conditions and, in particular, examine their interaction;
- (b) take account of the socio-economic disparities existing within the Community of the Twelve, both horizontal (regions, districts, territorial areas) and vertical (branches, sectors of industry, socio-professional categories);
- (c) work in close collaboration with the Community institutions, the organizations of the social partners and other national and international bodies;
- (d) see that better communication is developed between the various Member States on questions concerning living and working conditions;
- (e) assist in the transfer of experience and good practices;

- (f) seek practical applications for its work, defining its products and target audiences in advance, diversifying the nature of its activities.

In this connection, the Foundation will give priority to its relations with Community institutions, the organizations of the social partners at European and national level, and government authorities in Member States, as well as with other competent international and national bodies, all of which are priority audiences for its research projects.

While remaining aware of the developments in European society, the Foundation must limit the aspects on which it brings its activities to bear. Those activities must be orientated towards what the Foundation sees as priority areas, in view of its own structure, the work which it has already done, and its resources. The Foundation must concentrate its resources on a limited number of projects, while striving for maximum efficiency in the utilization of its expertise, competencies and experience.

In this perspective, the Foundation bases its action on several principles:

- (i) it gives priority to examining changes and mutations within European society, particularly those which have an impact on work and the quality of life;
- (ii) it gives prime importance to the role of the actors and other people affected by these changes, as well as to the development of social dialogue;
- (iii) it holds that it is necessary, in the process of European integration, to balance economic and social factors;
- (iv) it pays particular attention to groups potentially at risk;
- (v) it believes that where hazards are concerned, sound preventive action and the use of margins of manoeuvre before the event are better than correcting mistakes later on.

Having made these general points, and having situated its own work in relation to the completion of the internal mar-

ket and the implementation of the Single European Act, the Foundation aims at making its contribution — with 1992 in view — in six overlapping areas:

- (1) developing social dialogue and industrial relations;
- (2) restructuring working life;
- (3) promoting health and safety;
- (4) protecting the environment, the worker and the public;
- (5) raising the standard and quality of life for all;
- (6) assessing technologies of the future.

These six areas are placed in the context of the development of the European Community. Below are presented in greater detail the themes of work for the Foundation during its four-year rolling programme 1989-92.

1. Developing social dialogue and industrial relations

The Single European Act has introduced Article 118b into the EEC Treaty: 'The Commission shall endeavour to develop dialogue between management and labour at European level which could if the two sides consider it desirable, lead to relations based on agreement.' An interservice working party of the Commission, in its report on 'The social dimension of the internal market', (*Social Europe*, special issue, 1988) focused its activities on making a contribution to organizing a framework for European industrial relations; it was 'convinced that the agreement of the two sides of industry, once it has been achieved, will be an indispensable stimulus for coherence and dynamism in the internal market'.

The discussions between the social partners under the auspices of the Commission in the field of new technology, following the meeting in Val Duchesse on new technologies and social dialogue, confirm the significance of this issue within the Community. In March

1987 these discussions led to the expression of a joint opinion on training and motivation of workers to technological change, as well as an opinion on information and consultation in connection with the introduction of new technologies in firms. In this document the social partners 'recognize the need to make use of the economic and social potential offered by technological innovation in order to enhance the competitiveness of European firms and strengthen economic growth, thus creating one of the necessary conditions for better employment and, taking particular account of progress in the field of ergonomics, for improved working conditions...'. Within this context, '... both sides take the view that, when technological changes of major consequence for the workforce are introduced in the firm, workers and/or their representatives should be informed and consulted in accordance with the laws, agreements and practices in force in the Community countries'.

The Foundation, through its structure and having regard to the experience which it has built up through its research activities, feels confident that it is capable of complementing the Commission's efforts in this field with regard to certain specific questions, especially the role of the parties concerned in the introduction of new technologies, and the development of industrial relations.

2. Restructuring working life

Firms in the Member States of the European Community are in economic competition, on the world market, with the USA, Japan and the countries of the Far East; and the completion of the broad internal market will, for its part, lead to restructuring and probably serve to strengthen competition even within the common market. Other changes, particularly of a technological nature and in relation to the growing importance of the service sector, are also taking place. Given these conditions, in the future state of our European society, work will no longer be what it was: various forms of reorganization will be inevitable;

careers, working conditions and living conditions will be affected by this. But the workers' interests and the companies' requirements will gain mutually by being reconciled: that is why, in this area also, social dialogue is essential. Discussions are ongoing, in any case, between the social partners at European level, on the adaptability of firms and flexibility in the labour market.

The previous work done by the Foundation on the impact of new information technologies on living and working conditions, on teleworking, on new forms of work and activity (especially 'atypical working'), and on time management (especially working time and shiftwork) is here of obvious relevance in complementing the activities of other European Community bodies and international agencies.

3. Promoting health and safety

Article 100a of the Treaty, as modified by the Single European Act, states that the Commission is 'to take as base a high level of protection' concerning health and safety in general. More specifically, Article 118a specifies that 'Member States shall pay particular attention to encouraging improvements, especially in the working environment, as regards the health and safety of workers, and shall set as their objective the harmonization of conditions in this area'.

In this regard, a communication from the Commission has presented its programme of action concerning safety, hygiene and health at work (OJ C 28, 3. 2. 1988). At the present time, the Council is aware of a certain number of draft directives, and the Commission's programme further envisages non-legislative activities. Moreover, in its resolution of 21 December 1987 (OJ C 28, 3. 2. 1988) the Council of Ministers noted particularly that 'the development of growth and the improvement of productivity, both at the level of the individual firm and at the level of the Community's economy, are determined by factors which include the quality of the working environment, the

workers' ability to influence the working environment with regard to the protection of their safety and health, and also the motivation of the workforce.' The Council therefore decided, among other things, to suggest that a European Year of Health and Safety at the Workplace could be organized in 1992.

The Foundation has in the past dealt extensively, in many studies, with questions of health and safety, notably in connection with working conditions. It thus feels able to support Community actions now with its store of expertise, especially by developing Community-wide common indicators in this area, and by promoting the use of ergonomic principles.

4. Protecting the environment, the worker and the public

The public is growing increasingly concerned about the deteriorating condition of the environment and its effects, among other things, on health. This growing awareness is matched, at the level of European Communities, by a need for more efficient environmental policies. Thus, the Single European Act has added, to the third part of the EEC Treaty, subsection VII entitled 'The environment' (Articles 130r to 130t). The accent is placed on the preservation, protection and improvement of the quality of the environment, and on the protection of personal health, and the text of the law specifies that the requirements concerning environmental protection are an integral part of the other policies of the Community. This last consideration was taken into account by the Commission when preparing the fourth programme of action on the environment (1987-92), which recognizes for the first time that the environment is an integral part of the Community's economic, industrial, regional, agricultural, social and other policies; this takes on a special importance in the perspective of the completion of the internal market in 1992.

The Foundation, for its part, proposes to concentrate its efforts in the environmental area on two problems: on

the one hand, the question of disadvantaged zones and regions (urban, rural and/or coastal), and on the other hand the question of the relations between economic activity and the environment.

5. Raising the standard and quality of life for all

The internal market can help to realize aspirations for improvement in the quality of life for all. However, in achieving the aim of relaunching growth and employment in Europe, and facilitating the improvement of living and working conditions, there is a risk that the laws of the market, unless accompanied by adequate measures, could reinforce the trend towards marginalization and poverty in certain regions and localities. The Single European Act lays down a certain number of actions designed to strengthen economic and social cohesion in the Community (Articles 130a and 130e), especially through the use of the structural Funds. However, the new forms of poverty or exclusion (unemployment, for example) do not consist merely of a material dimension; they also have repercussions on cultural, social and civic life. Hence the need to take a comprehensive look at the question of living conditions in Europe.

The completion of the internal market will facilitate mobility (geographical, occupational, etc.) for many Europeans, but others are likely to face increased constraints in this area, having less choice in where they live, and seeing other aspects of their living conditions getting worse.

The Foundation has already undertaken studies of the living conditions of young people, the long-term unemployed and the elderly, particularly in an urban environment. At the same time, it has been developing a comprehensive approach to the problems of dealing with economic and social change within local communities. During the years 1989-92, it intends to continue its work on social cohesion, concentrating on two aspects: disadvantaged areas and special groups at risk.

6. Assessing technologies of the future

Technology is developing on many fronts, and so-called 'technologies of the future' such as lasers, biotechnology, super-conductors and glass-fibre transmission lines, are beginning to find many practical applications. In the light of the completion of the internal market, increased Community-wide cooperation in research and development will lead to further applications of such technologies at European Community level, and all aspects of life and work may be affected. While technological progress is in itself a positive and necessary phenomenon given the present state of competition, further advantages can be gained by securing the best use of the margins for manoeuvre offered by the new technologies, so as to optimize their value to society.

This is the perspective within which the efforts of the Foundation on future technologies must be seen. On a small scale, concentrating on living and working conditions, the Foundation can contribute to the public debate and the technological assessment undertaken by other Community bodies.

These six areas, envisaged for the Foundation's 1989-92 four-year rolling programme, must not be seen as disconnected parts; on the contrary, they are interrelated in many ways, with numerous cross-references. Similarly, within the various areas of study, working conditions and living conditions will often be examined together.

The activities of the Foundation

The areas and themes of work outlined above will make up the content around which the Foundation's work will be organized during its four-year rolling programme, 1989-92.

It will be the business of successive annual programmes of work to specify the precise implementation of activities

on these various themes, having regard to the resources provided. The Founding Regulation of the Foundation (Regulation No 1365/75 of the Council) specifies its possible activities as follows (Article 3):

1. In order to achieve its aim, the Foundation shall foster the exchange of information and experience in these fields and shall, where appropriate, set up a system of information and documentation. It may for example:
 - (a) facilitate contact between universities, study and research institutes, economic and social administrations and organizations, and encourage concerted action;
 - (b) set up working groups;
 - (c) conclude study contracts, participate in studies, promote and provide assistance for pilot projects and, where required, itself carry out certain studies;
 - (d) organize courses, conferences and seminars.
2. The Foundation shall cooperate as closely as possible with specialized institutes, foundations and bodies in the Member States or at international level.

Implementing these principles within the framework of the four-year rolling programme 1989-92, the actions which the Foundation intends to develop may be grouped under two main headings:

- (i) the collection, updating and development of knowledge (research activities);
- (ii) the dissemination of knowledge (information activities).

List of the research areas of the Foundation, 1977-88

I — First four-year rolling programme (1977-80)

1. Work organization

New forms of work organization (national surveys)

Implications of new forms of work organization for training (studies carried out in close cooperation with CEDEFOP, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training)

New forms of work organization in public services

Impact of worker participation in the improvement of work organization and the working environment

Participation in systems design for new forms of work organization

Development and testing of a provisional research framework for a quantitative analysis of work organization

2. Shiftwork

Extent and pattern of shiftwork in manufacturing industry and the services sector (national surveys)

Shiftwork in the chemical industry (national surveys)

Effects of shiftwork on health, social and family life

Innovations in shiftwork (chemical industry, textile industry and health services)

Economic aspects of shiftwork

Accidents and shiftwork

3. Physical and psychological constraints at work

Safety and health at the work place (national surveys)

Physical and psychological stress (study with a view to identifying areas for future research and assessing the findings of existing research)

4. Wage payment systems

Spread and characteristics of wage payment systems (national surveys)

Effects of payment schemes

5. Economic and social assessment of working conditions

Economic evaluation of working conditions

6. Effect of technological development on working conditions and the environment

Impact of visual-display units on operators

Impact of electronic data-processing systems designs on working conditions

II — Second four-year rolling programme (1981-84)

1. Work organization

Technological revolution in the office:

(a) extent of introduction of electronic machinery in the office (market analysis with regard to the supply side and consumers' demands, ergonomic issues and interaction between work organization and new technology);

(b) possible forms of work organization, qualifications and training of personnel, and qualitative improvement of working conditions, connected with new technology;

(c) visual-display units and the work situation

Impact of technological development on work organization in banking and insurance, supermarkets, the public service and mechanical engineering

Changes in work organization and the role of the parties concerned:

(a) the role of the parties concerned in the design and implementation of new forms of work organization and the introduction of new technologies;

(b) extension to a monitoring study on the effects of the Worker Participation (State Enterprises) Act 1977 on seven semi-State companies in Ireland;

(c) relation and interaction between changes in work organization and payment schemes

2. Shiftwork

The necessity of shiftwork in the chemical and brewing industries and

the economic and social consequences of changes

Technological development, its impact on shiftwork and its potential for improving shiftwork conditions:

(a) in the car manufacturing industry, printing (newspaper) industry and steel industry;

(b) multi-disciplinary study on shiftwork and innovation;

(c) review of shiftwork research undertaken by the Foundation (1981-84)

3. Physical and psychological stress

Effects of new technology in postal organizations, on experienced workers, and on workers and patients in the health services

Interaction of workers and machinery

4. Working time and leisure time

Analysis of literature on the effects of changes in working time, and on total working time in a person's life span; collection of information on activities undertaken by other European institutions

Impact of retirement on the living conditions of retired workers

Investigation of activities for the unemployed

Organization of time and improvement of living and working conditions for the consumers and 'providers' of services

5. Transport

Relationship between transport policies, planning, and living and working conditions

Travel between home and work: the impact of commuting on health and safety

Influence of the parties involved in the planning, financing and running of commuter transport

Transport of non-nuclear toxic and dangerous goods, substances and wastes:

(a) legal situation in the Member States;

(b) technical, safety and legal aspects of packaging and means of transport

6. Housing

Preliminary study on housing in large and highly industrialized urban concentrations

7. Telework

Impact of telework on living and working conditions

III — Third four-year rolling programme (1985-88)

1. Man at work

Changes in the production of goods and services:

(a) working conditions in the construction industry;

(b) working conditions and industrial relations in small and medium-sized enterprises

Changes in work:

(a) humanized design and introduction of industrial robots

(b) working conditions in the management of technical projects

(c) working conditions and quality of care in the health services

(d) telework

(e) new forms of work and activity

Changes in industrial relations:

(a) role of the parties concerned in the introduction of new technology

(b) the changing functions of lower and middle management

(c) European labour and industrial relations directory

2. Time

Organization of time:

- (a) organization of time and the improvement of living and working conditions;
- (b) International archive of time budget data

Social cohesion; free time; family

- (a) impact of social cohesion and time available for assisting elderly people

3. The environment

Urban environment:

- (a) strategies and practices for providing information on urban services;
- (b) accommodation and social cohesion: implications for young people;
- (c) coping with social and economic change at neighbourhood level;
- (d) living conditions of the long-term unemployed (locally-based responses);

- (e) initiatives limited to voluntary work in the environment

Biotechnology:

- (a) The impact of biotechnology on living and working conditions

Non-nuclear waste:

- (a) safety aspects of hazardous wastes;
- (b) safety aspects of contaminated work sites;
- (c) hazardous wastes and the public;
- (d) education and training concerning hazardous wastes

Free movement — Social protection and living conditions

Analyses, debates, studies

The vocational rehabilitation of disabled women in the European Community¹

This report is the first study of the position of disabled women in the European Community. Its principal aim is to provide information on the development of different policies in the Member States. It was compiled with the help of handicapped women. Reference should be made to the difficulties encountered by the authors of this study in gathering statistics and information relating to this group.

The different factors and problems associated with employment of handicapped women will be examined below.

1. The nature of human rights

In this context, reference can be made to two UN initiatives on the position of handicapped women: the United Nations Declaration on the law governing handicapped people (1975), and International Women's Year (1975) followed by the United Nations' Decade for Women. This decade should also have been dedicated to handicapped women, but this emphasis was abandoned, partly because 1981 was declared the International Year of Handicapped People. The Declaration of the rights of handicapped people was issued in 1979.

Following the worldwide programme of action on behalf of handicapped people, it emerged that the latter were anxious to become an integral part of society with full rights and duties — in this connection, handicapped women — organized in order to gain more freedom and control of their own lives.

At European level, note should be taken of the Council Resolution of 27 June 1974, setting out a programme of Community action for the vocational rehabilitation of handicapped people.

2. The female context

In order to gain a better insight into the opportunities available to handicapped women, it is important to understand the general context in which European women live.

2.1. 'Nursing' women

The lack of adequate services means that, in most families with a handicapped person, the responsibility for care falls on women. This situation raises the question of the extent of the handicapped person's dependence on his or her family, which is all the greater if that person is a woman.

2.2. Women who are 'head of household'

A total of 4.9% of the European population falls into the category of single-parent families; a third of these families have children under 16, and nine-tenths of the parents concerned are women, of whom just over half have a paid job. Many of these women have to look after a handicapped child or are themselves handicapped. Apart from the emotional problems experienced by these heads of household, the families often live in poverty.

2.3. Mothers

As well as insisting on the right of handicapped women to work, it is necessary to provide domestic help in order to enable them to play a significant role at home, even if this means giving them paid assistance. They must be protected in terms of their rights both as mothers and partners.

2.4. The European feminist movements

Although handicapped women felt excluded from the women's liberation movements, these initiatives did motivate them to take action and organize.

3. Women at work

The position is characterized by the following three factors:

- (a) The division between male and female education still exists, and applies equally to handicapped people, despite efforts to promote the integration of handicapped children into ordinary schools, where girls are

¹ This article is a synopsis of the study 'Vocational rehabilitation of disabled women in the European Community — Programme of research and actions for the social integration of disabled people', produced for the Commission by Mary Croxson John, 143 pp., November 1988.

educated as equals. This initiative is particularly interesting, since special schools provide a protected environment which does not help children to adapt to everyday life and necessitates extra training in order to ensure their adjustment to the working environment.

- (b) Although women's salaries are becoming indispensable in the household, their type of occupation is often influenced by their husbands' situation and domestic responsibilities. Moreover, the husband provides most of the family income.
- (c) Various government policies encourage women to stay at home (lack of crèches, taxation, etc.).

4. The handicap factor

The Council Decision of 18 April 1988 defined handicapped people as all persons affected by a serious handicap resulting from physical or mental weakness.

Estimated number of handicapped women in the Member States:

	Total popula- tion (1 000)	5% of total (1 000)
Belgium	9 880	494
Denmark	5 144	257
France	54 600	2 730
FR of Germany	61 100	3 055
Greece	9 933	496
Ireland	3 595	1 797
Italy	85 800	4 290
Luxembourg	362	18
Netherlands	14 507	725
Portugal	10 077	5 038
Spain	39 000	1 950
United Kingdom	55 600	2 780

(Figures based on 1985 population data.)

It is difficult to estimate the exact number of handicapped people in the Community. Whilst some sources put

the figure at between 13 and 20 million, others estimate it to be as high as 37 million. Some people refuse to register as handicapped. Statistics show that two-thirds of handicapped people are over 65, an age-bracket with a female majority. Among the causes of disability, illness is the most predominant: problems of stamina (heart trouble, for example), weakness in the legs and mental illness are on the increase. An increase in accidents at work and occupational illnesses has also been noted.

Of the total number of unemployed in the Communities, 52% are classed as long-term unemployed, and a considerable proportion of these are women.

5. Handicapped women and paid work

Attention should focus on three points: changes in the structure of the workforce, the consequences of handicaps which affect women more than men and the nature of the 'two-fold disadvantage' of being both female and handicapped in the employment contest.

5.1. Women and work

In many of the Member States, the increase in the number of women on the job market is a reflection of part-time work. The jobs performed by women are 'reserved' for them and are often part-time. It is rare for women to work full-time and carry out the same activities as a man. Even in high-level jobs, women occupy lower positions. Whereas most jobs offer the prospect of promotion, women have little chance of a career, and certainly none with a part-time job. Moreover, those who do part-time work are employed for the number of hours necessary to complete a specific task and, consequently, do not benefit from quiet periods.

At first glance, part-time work seems ideal for handicapped women. However, competition is fierce and, because of their handicap and the strong likelihood that they will fall ill and/or not be able to keep up with the pace of work, they are

rarely engaged. In some countries (United Kingdom, Ireland), moreover, part-time work means that the handicapped person is no longer entitled to disability allowances. Furthermore, employing a handicapped woman entails additional costs such as special travel expenses and home-help expenditure.

5.2. Types of handicap

Handicapped women do not form a homogeneous group within the competitive framework of the job market. Some illnesses affect women more than men (for example, arthritis and sclerosis) and, of course, there are specifically female illnesses such as post-natal psychoses and post-menopausal osteoporoses. Each of these illnesses has different consequences at the occupational level. It should be pointed out that, since women have started to work, they have become equally susceptible to those illnesses which were once confined to men, such as the heart trouble and respiratory problems, associated with stress at work.

6. Women and handicaps

An increasing number of women have entered the job-market. At the same time, they continue to take responsibility for household and family duties. This double life, even without a handicap, is very tiring. A handicapped woman can sometimes take two hours merely to get ready in the morning.

Although women are biologically stronger than men, this advantage is often lost since women's and girls' health is frequently neglected. In poor countries, numerous pregnancies, the lack of health care and, in some areas, the greater attention paid to boys increase health risks. Moreover, women often combine outside work with domestic duties which are frequently dangerous (causing a fifth of accidents). They often sacrifice themselves for the benefit of their family. In short, in some areas, women are more likely to be handicapped than their male counterparts.

A woman's daily routine represents an almost impossible task for the handicapped women. Their income is often too meagre to pay for household appliances and their home is rarely adapted to take account of their handicap.

The absence of 'material well-being', a problem easily solved by adequate remuneration is ultimately linked to the fact that they are both handicapped and female, and serves as an additional obstacle to employment.

European Social Fund

Actions and guidelines

The reform of the structural Funds and the European Social Fund

Introduction

Along with the other structural Funds, i. e. the European Regional Development Fund and the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF) — Guidance Section, the European Investment Bank (EIB) and the other existing financial instruments,¹ the European Social Fund (ESF) constitutes an important Community intervention mechanism designed to further the economic and social cohesion envisaged by the Treaty.² The purpose of economic and social cohesion, which is necessary in order to offset the potentially adverse effects of the creation by the end of 1992 of 'an area without internal frontiers, in which the free movement of goods, persons, services and capital is ensured', is to reduce the gap between the advanced and less-developed regions and to promote a more balanced form of Community development through economic integration. For the attainment of this objective, the Member States must coordinate their economic policies more closely and the Community must continue to implement its common policies and its activities within the framework of the structural Funds, the EIB and the other existing financial instruments.³ Referring to the contribution of the structural Funds to the creation of the single market, Article 130d of the EEC Treaty provides for the rationalization of their tasks as a means of improving effectiveness and coordinating their activities and Article 130e regulates the adoption of specific implementing rules for each Fund.

Council Regulations (EEC) Nos 2052/88 of 24 June 1988 on the tasks of the structural Funds and their effectiveness and on coordination of their activities between themselves and with the operations of the European Investment Bank and the other existing financial instruments⁴ and 4253/88 of 19

December 1988⁵ laying down provisions for implementing Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 as regards coordination of the activities of the different structural Funds between themselves and with the operations of the European Investment Bank and the other existing financial instruments, together with specific implementing Regulations relating to the three Funds⁶ constitute all of the rules governing the reform of the Funds with a view to the smooth operation of the single market. As regards the ESF, in particular, this represents a further reform — the fourth since its creation — which, pursuant to the provisions of the Treaty of Rome⁷ — is designed to 'improve employment opportunities for workers in the common market and to contribute thereby to raising the standard of living'.⁸

The principal characteristics of the reform of the structural Funds

1. The reform ensures that a large proportion of the structural Funds' resources will be concentrated on the less-developed areas of the Community and introduces machinery designed to guarantee, as far as possible, Community action for the attainment of its objectives. Thus, the changes introduced by the rules governing the reform of structural Funds relate to:

¹ Measures to improve fisheries structures, specific measures in the energy sector, aid for transport infrastructures, Community action on the environment, measures in the field of research and innovation, etc. See 'Help and loans from the European Community', *European Documentation*, Periodical, 1985.

² According to Article 130a of the EEC Treaty: 'In order to promote its overall harmonious development the Community shall develop and pursue its actions leading to the strengthening of its economic and social cohesion. In particular, the Community shall aim at reducing disparities between the various regions and the backwardness of the less-favoured regions'.

³ See Article 130b of the EEC Treaty.

⁴ OJ L 185, 15. 7. 1988, p. 9.

⁵ OJ L 374, 31. 12. 1988, p. 1.

⁶ Council Regulation (EEC) No 4254/88 of 19 December 1988, laying down provisions for implementing Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 as regards the European Regional Development Fund, OJ L 374, 31. 12. 1988, p. 15; Council Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88 of 19 December 1988 laying down provisions for implementing Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 as regards the European Social Fund, OJ L 374, 31. 12. 1988, p. 21; Council Regulation (EEC) No 4256/88 of 19 December 1988 laying down provisions for implementing Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 as regards the EAGGF Guidance Section, OJ L 374, 31. 12. 1988, p. 25.

⁷ Articles 123 to 128 of the EEC Treaty. See, in particular, Article 126 and Council Decisions 71/66/EEC, OJ L 28, 4. 2. 1971, p. 15, 77/801/EEC, OJ L 377, 27. 12. 1977, p. 8 and 83/516/EEC, OJ L 289, 22. 10. 1983, p. 38.

⁸ See Articles 130e of the EEC Treaty, 3(2) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 123 of the EEC Treaty.

- (a) the concentration of Fund activities on five objectives, which are deemed to be of primary importance;
- (b) the doubling in real terms of commitment appropriations for the structural Funds in 1993 by comparison with 1987;
- (c) the multiannual planning by the Member States of their development or redevelopment and employment policies and the multiannual approval by the Commission of operational programmes for Community intervention both within the framework of these policies and Community policies;
- (d) the establishment of close cooperation ('partnership') between the Commission and the competent national, regional or local authorities with regard to activities requiring the assistance of the Funds;
- (e) the introduction of machinery for monitoring and assessing Community structural activities aimed at improving the effectiveness of the Funds and evaluating the economic impact of the aid provided.

2. The concentration of Fund activity on five objectives¹ is intended to promote the development of the less prosperous Community regions or to redevelop those regions affected by industrial decline and to provide jobs for such categories as the young or long-term unemployed seeking to enter the job market. Thus, the Funds contribute to the development and structural adjustment of certain under-developed regions (Objective 1),² the conversion of regions affected by industrial decline (Objective 2)³ and the development of certain rural areas (Objective 5b).⁴ The regions in question are generally under-developed and the ERDF, backed up by the other Funds,⁵ remains the major source of development aid — at least in the case of Objectives 1 and 2.

The amount of Community assistance towards the financing of measures taken in these regions depends on such factors as the extent of the problem in question, the financial resources of the Member State concerned, the particular

relevance of the measures from a regional or Community point of view and the special features of the types of measure proposed.

Nevertheless, in the case of activities financed in the regions covered by Objective 1, Community help can attain 75% of the total cost and, as a general rule, at least 50% of eligible public expenditure (compared with a maximum of 50% of the total cost of measures taken in other regions and, as a general rule, at least 25% of eligible public expenditure).⁶

Furthermore, the ERDF allocates 80% of its funds to the development and structural adjustment of the less-developed regions covered by Objective 1.⁷ Finally, aid from the Funds allocated to those regions covered by Objective 1 will have doubled in real terms by 1992.⁸

3. Whereas all the Funds, including the European Social Fund,⁹ can be used for the development or restructuring of the regions covered by Objectives 1, 2 and 5b, the ESF remains the sole source of finance for the implementation of Objectives 3 and 4 set out in Article 1 of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88, namely combating long-term unemployment (Objective 3) and the employment of young people (Objective 4).⁹

Both these objectives involve a Community-wide attempt to cope with the worrying problems posed by the long-term unemployment of nearly six million Community citizens and the existence of more than five million job-seekers under the age of 25;¹⁰ this attempt takes the form of funding for vocational training, assistance in finding jobs and the provision of opportunities for the self-employed.¹¹

regions, frontier regions or parts of regions (including employment areas and urban communities) seriously affected by industrial decline (hereinafter referred to as 'Objective 2'); 3. combating long-term unemployment (hereinafter referred to as 'Objective 3'); 4. facilitating the occupational integration of young people (hereinafter referred to as 'Objective 4'); 5. with a view to reform of the common agricultural policy: (a) speeding up the adjustment of agricultural structures, and (b) promoting the development of rural areas (hereinafter referred to as 'Objective 5(a) and 5(b)').

² These regions, listed in Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 are: Andalusia, Asturias, Castilla y León, Castilla-La Mancha, Ceuta-Melilla, Valencia, Extremadura, Galicia, Canary Islands, Murcia (Spain), French overseas departments, Corsica (France), Abruzzi, Basilicata, Calabria, Campania Molise, Apulia, Sardinia, Sicily (Italy), Northern Ireland (United Kingdom) and the whole of Ireland, Greece and Portugal. See list of regions covered by Objective 1 annexed to Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 as well as Article 8(1), (2) and (3) of that Regulation.

³ See the list of these regions compiled by the Commission pursuant to the criteria set out in Article 9(2) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88, OJ L 112, 25. 4. 1989, p. 19. See also Article 9(4) of that Regulation which states that, in establishing the list, the Commission shall seek to ensure that assistance is genuinely concentrated on the areas most seriously affected at the most appropriate geographical level, taking into account the particular situation of the areas concerned. See also Article 9(5), (6) and (7) of the same Regulation.

⁴ The Commission also selects rural areas on the basis of certain criteria laid down in Article 11(2) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and specified in Article 4 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88 (high share of agricultural employment in total employment, low level of agricultural income, low level of socio-economic development, sensitivity to changes in the agricultural sector, especially in the context of the reform of the common agricultural policy, etc.). In this case also, the Commission seeks to ensure that measures are effectively concentrated on those areas affected by the most serious rural development problems (Article 4(4) of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88). See OJ L 198, 12. 7. 1989, p. 1 for the list of areas covered by Objective 5b.

⁵ Pursuant to Article 2 of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88, the structural Funds are to contribute, each according to the specific provisions governing its operations, to the achievement of Objectives 1, 2 and 5b on the following basis: Objective 1 — ERDF, ESF and the EAGGF Guidance Section; Objective 2 — ERDF and ESF; Objective 5b — EAGGF Guidance Section, ESF and ERDF. See also Article 130c of the EEC Treaty.

⁶ See Articles 13(1), (2) and (3) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 17(1) and (2) of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

⁷ See Article 12(5) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88.

⁸ See Article 12(3) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88.

⁹ See Article 2 of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88.

¹⁰ See Article 3(2) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 1(1) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

¹¹ See guidelines on ESF intervention in respect of action to combat long-term unemployment and the occupational integration of young people (Objectives 3 and 4 in the context of the reform of the structural Funds), OJ C 45, 24. 2. 1989, p. 6.

¹ Article 1 of Council Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 states: 'Community action through the structural Funds, the EIB and other existing financial instruments shall support the achievement of the general objectives set out in Articles 130a and 130c of the Treaty by contributing to the attainment of the following five priority objectives: 1. promoting the development and structural adjustment of the regions whose development is lagging behind (hereinafter referred to as 'Objective 1'); 2. converting the re-

By intervening to help the above-mentioned categories, the ESF is becoming a valuable instrument enabling them to improve their knowledge and acquire the new qualifications which seem likely to become necessary with the advent of the single market.

4. With a view to guaranteeing the effective use of the structural Funds, the reformed rules provide for a new approach to the preparation, approval, monitoring and evaluation of activities eligible for assistance. This new approach, based on the multiannual planning of Member States' development, employment or re-development policies as well as on Fund activities, usually also in the form of multiannual programmes, makes the ESF an effective means of promoting coherent Community employment policies. The different stages indicated in the plans submitted by the Member States outlining their development, re-development and employment policies,¹ the Community support framework which determines the Commission's approach to Community intervention by agreement with the Member States concerned² and the operational phase involving the approval of specific aid programmes³ make up the new procedure designed to improve the impact of Community structural activities and ensure development.

Other important features of the attempt to implement the priority objectives of the reform are the funding of technical assistance for Member States from the preparatory stage right through to project implementation,⁴ the establishment of close cooperation ('partnership') between the Commission and the competent authorities (national, regional or local) throughout the entire process from planning to the final assessment of operations⁵ and the adoption of monitoring and assessment methods designed to ensure the efficiency of Community action and identify the effects of the assistance.⁶

In the latter case, the setting-up of committees responsible for closely monitoring the progress of the measures and ensuring that satisfactory economic results are obtained within the frame-

work of the national or regional structure concerned⁷ as well as the *ex ante* and *ex post* evaluation of Community measures⁸ tend to ensure, partly through the possible need to revise operations in planning future activities, satisfactory socio-economic effects which reinforce the recommended economic and social cohesion.⁹

Regulations applicable to the European Social Fund

5. Article 3 (2) of framework Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 states that, in the framework of Article 123 of the EEC Treaty, the ESF shall:

- (i) have as priority missions to provide support throughout the Community for vocational-training measures and aids for employment and for the creation of self-employed activities, in order to combat long-term unemployment (Objective 3) and integrate young people into working life (Objective 4);
- (ii) also support measures for Objectives 1, 2 and 5 b.

The second paragraph of the same Article sets out the categories of person who qualify for ESF aid in accordance with the five objectives; in the case of Objectives 1, 2 and 5b, it mentions not only young people and the long-term unemployed, but also other categories (notably the unemployed or persons threatened with unemployment) who need to acquire new qualifications or adapt their skills in line with market requirements.

This is essentially a dual approach linked, on the one hand, to the development of backward regions (Objective 1), the reconversion of regions seriously affected by industrial decline (Objective 2) and development promotion in rural areas (Objective 5b) and, on the other, to specific categories regarded as prime Community candidates for financial aid from the ESF (Objectives 3 and 4).

In keeping with this approach, Article 2 of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88 provides for Fund assistance in respect of

Objectives 1, 2 and 5b for eligible projects aimed not only at young people and the long-term unemployed, but also at the unemployed, those threatened with unemployment, those employed in large or small companies and any working person involved in an operation which is essential to the achievement of the aims of an integrated programme.

¹ See Articles 8(4), 9(8), 10(2) and 11(3) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88, according to which the plans submitted to the Commission by the Member States in connection with the various objectives must include, in particular:

- (a) a description of the priorities chosen for regional development, the conversion of the areas concerned, the fight against long-term unemployment and the employment of young people and the development of rural areas;
- (b) an indication of the use to be made of assistance available under the Funds, the European Investment Bank and the other financial instruments in implementing the plans. See also Articles 5 and 6 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88 for scope and content, duration and timetable. As regards the ESF, in particular, see also Articles 5 and 9(2) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

² According to Articles 8(5), 9(9), 10(3) and 11(3) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88, the Community support framework must cover, in particular:

- (i) the priorities adopted for Community assistance;
- (ii) the forms of assistance;
- (iii) the indicative financing plan, with details of the amount of assistance and its source;
- (iv) the duration of the assistance.

See also Articles 8 and 10 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

³ See Articles 5 of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 12 to 16 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88. See also Article 6 of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88 for the ESF in particular.

⁴ See Articles 4(3) and 13(4) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 16(3) of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

⁵ Article 4(1) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 states: 'Community operations shall be such as to complement or contribute to corresponding national operations. They shall be established through close consultations between the Commission, the Member State concerned and the competent authorities designated by the latter at national, regional, local or other level, with each party acting as a partner in pursuit of a common goal. These consultations are hereinafter referred to as the "partnership". The partnership shall cover the preparation, financing, monitoring and assessment of operations'.

⁶ See Articles 6 of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 25 and 26 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

⁷ See Article 25 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

⁸ See Article 26 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

⁹ See Article 9 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88 which expressly refers to an additional economic impact in the regions concerned brought about by increased funding.

6. Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88 expands the definition of vocational training in line with the different objectives. For the purpose of Objectives 3 and 4, vocational training means any measure aimed at providing the skills necessary to carry out one or more specific types of employment, with the exception of apprenticeship schemes, and any measure with the relevant technology content required by technological change and requirements and developments on the labour market.¹ Although this definition remains the basis for training related to Objectives 1, 2 and 5b, certain exemptions are provided for in the case either of the regions covered by those three objectives or of those to which only Objective 1 applies. In regions covered by Objectives 1, 2 and 5b, vocational training is extended to include any activities and further training measures required for the use of new production and/or management techniques in small or medium-sized business;² for regions covered by Objective 1, training also includes the theoretical part of apprenticeship training undertaken outside the firm as well as that part of the national secondary or corresponding education programme which is specifically devoted to vocational training after the period of compulsory full-time schooling, where that part meets the challenge posed by economic and technological changes.³

There are similar plans to extend the definition of recruitment subsidies in the regions covered by Objective 1; exceptional arrangements for 1990 and 1991 will extend such subsidies to non-productive projects which fulfil a public need involving the creation of additional jobs of at least six months' duration for the long-term unemployed aged over 25.⁴

This extension of the definition of vocational training and recruitment subsidies for the benefit of less-prosperous Community regions has a two-fold aim: firstly, to enable those regions facing particular problems, which often lack adequate training facilities, to cope with the new market challenges and, secondly, to offer them the opportunity to absorb the considerable resources allocated for their development.

7. Article 10 of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 provides for general guidelines that set out and clarify the Community choices and criteria applicable solely to training measures which are eligible for funding under Objectives 3 and 4, that is action to combat long-term unemployment and facilitate the employment of young people. These are basically employment and training policy guidelines laid down by the Commission for a period of at least three years⁵ in order to improve the employment prospects of young people and the long-term unemployed via training in the light of the foreseeable state of the job market and the new requirements arising from the creation of the single market.

The Commission has just drawn up the first guidelines for the training of the long-term unemployed (Objective 3) and young people (Objective 4) within the framework of the reform of the structural Funds; these are designed to increase the impact of Community measures taken to help these categories and to orientate their training towards those economic sectors which are likely to be affected by the creation of the single market.⁶ According to the Commission's guidelines, the development of strategies combining several sorts of measures making training a real factor in helping the long-term unemployed to find work and the implementation of vocational training measures for young people seeking their first steady job on completing full-time schooling or secondary or higher education continue to be the basic conditions for ESF intervention in favour of these categories. At the same time, other additional qualitative criteria will now be applied to ensure that these operations receive preferential treatment. This will apply particularly to transnational training schemes conducted jointly by bodies in two or more Member States, training in advanced technology, innovative training measures or training designed to modernize the production and marketing systems of businesses in economically promising sectors, programmes leading to the improvement and increased efficiency of training systems and structures and training for the benefit of specific ca-

tegories facing particular difficulties on the job market, such as the handicapped, migrants and women. Thus, the Commission's guidelines seek to ensure a pragmatic and flexible approach to the provision of jobs for young people and the long-term unemployed in the light of the needs arising during the process and the dialectic of the liberalization of market forces.

8. In addition to training measures accompanied, where appropriate, by vocational guidance schemes and assistance in finding newly-created stable jobs and taking up self-employed activities, the ESF funds, from its own resources, a series of measures necessary for the preparation, execution and monitoring of the approved training measures. Thus, it helps to finance studies, technical assistance, the exchange of information and the monitoring and evaluation of training measures which have received support. In addition, the ESF can contribute to the exclusive financing of career guidance services for the long-term unemployed and measures within the framework of the social dialogue aimed at company employees in two or more Member States concerning the transfer of special knowledge of relevance to the modernization of the production apparatus.⁷ These measures, which are being included for the first time among those eligible for Fund assistance, have a twofold purpose. Firstly, it is intended that they should play a complementary role in ensuring effective ESF intervention by orientating vocational training towards an efficient employment policy. Secondly, they are designed to promote further the employment of certain categories of person facing additional problems on the job market.

¹ See Article 1 (3) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

² See Articles 1 (4) and 2 (b) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

³ See Articles 1 (5) and 2 (c) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

⁴ See Articles 1 (6) and 2 (c), last indent of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

⁵ See Article 4 of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

⁶ See footnote 2 on p. 103.

⁷ See Article 1 (2) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

9. The operational training programmes which are financed by the ESF under Objectives 1, 2 and 5b can take the form either of autonomous programmes or a series of mutually reinforcing integrated measures which can draw on the support of other structural Funds.¹ In the latter case, Community intervention through the Funds can be based on an integrated approach, not unlike that pursued to date within the framework of the integrated Mediterranean programmes or integrated development measures. The choice of one or other form of ESF intervention depends both on the type of development recommended and the impact of training on the economic situation prevailing in the country or area concerned. On the other hand, the operational training programmes financed under Objectives 3 and 4 are devised as independent measures essentially aimed at young people or the long-term unemployed in the national context.²

In the context of possible ESF funding under the different objectives, it is interesting to note the innovative training programmes which are intended to test new approaches to the methods and content of vocational training courses (technology transfer, joint projects, Community training links, etc.).³

Similarly, reference can be made to the training programmes notified by the Member States in response to a Com-

mission initiative,⁴ given that these programmes will indicate the Commission's priorities as regards the attainment of the reform's objectives.

Together with the innovative training programmes, those stemming from a Commission initiative will have considerable bearing on the stimulus which the Member States and the Commission intend to give to the new reform process.

Conclusion

The new rules governing the reform of the structural Funds and aimed at achieving economic and social cohesion will improve the effectiveness of ESF intervention by virtue of the importance attached to vocational training as a development factor. Through the machinery which they introduce, the same rules will also encourage the establishment of effective and coherent vocational training policies designed to promote development through better use of the human resources benefiting from the Community aid in question. The tapping of human resources represents an important source of capital for the economic development of the less prosperous Member States which, along with other measures, could help them to close the gap on the richer countries and create conditions for a more balanced form of free competition

within the Community. Member States should introduce training programmes which, whilst being adapted to a particular economic situation, are designed to ensure an overall rise in qualification levels with a view to the completion of the internal market. Similarly, the Commission is urged to promote development by ensuring that Community intervention, in conjunction with national measures, produces an economic impact which strengthens its economic and social cohesion. The new rules introduce a new dialectic, which poses a challenge for the Member States and the Commission alike.

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¹ See Articles 5(5) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 13 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

² In addition to operational programmes, the ESF can provide global grants, as a general rule, managed by an intermediary designated by the Member State in agreement with the Commission and allocated by the intermediary in the form of individual grants to final beneficiaries. See Articles 5(2)(c) of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88, 16(1) of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88 and 6(1) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88.

³ See Article 1(2) of Regulation (EEC) No 4255/88 and guidelines for Objectives 3 and 4, *op. cit.*, footnote 2 on p. 103.

⁴ See Articles 5(5), third indent, of Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 and 11 of Regulation (EEC) No 4253/88.

Education — Vocational training

Actions and guidelines

Erasmus programme

Proposals for adaptations to the Council Decision of 15 June 1987

The Commission's proposals for the adaptation of the Erasmus programme which it adopted on 26 April 1989 are based not only on experience with the implementation of the programme over the last two years but also on the results of a number of elements of monitoring and evaluation carried out over the last year. The Commission's proposals, which have been formulated after due consultation with the Erasmus Advisory Committee, provide for a budget of ECU 192 million for the three-year period 1990-92 and include in particular the following:

- (a) provision of financial support for interuniversity cooperation programmes for a multiannual period, in the form of successive annual commitments;
- (b) creation of a small fund (not more than 5% of the total student-grants budget) to be set aside to enable corrective measures to be taken at Community level to ensure similar chances for students in all disciplines and from all Member States wishing to participate in Erasmus;
- (c) inclusion in the programme of categories of students excluded until now, in particular students who have completed a course of study in one Member State and who wish to gain a further qualification in another Member State within the framework of an organized interuniversity programme;
- (d) extension of the minimum duration of the study period abroad from three to six months except in exceptional cases.

The aim of the proposals is to introduce improvements in the implementation of Erasmus in order to increase the number of students participating and at the same time improve the quality of the programme as a whole.

Introduction

The Erasmus programme (European Community action scheme for the mobility of university students) was adopted as a permanent programme for increasing the mobility of students and teaching staff on 15 June 1987 with an initial budget of ECU 85 million for the first three years of operation (1987-89).

The programme is already firmly established as the single most important vehicle within Europe for interuniversity cooperation and student mobility. The very considerable growth noted in the first two years of operation will be consolidated in 1989/90 and indeed by the end of the first three years of operation (1987-89), it is estimated that Erasmus will have enabled approximately 40 000 students to spend a recognized period of study in another Member State within over 1 500 interuniversity cooperation programmes involving almost 1 000 higher-education institutions. Over 8 000 university staff members will have been involved in study or teaching visits to other Member States. This already represents a substantial increase in the level of mobility since the introduction of the programme.

It is against this background that the Commission adopted its proposals for the Erasmus Phase II budget and for amendments to the Decision text on 26 April 1989. These proposals were put forward in accordance with Article 7 of the existing Council Decision which provides that 'before 31 December 1989 the Commission shall submit a report to the European Parliament and the Council on the experience acquired in the application of the programme, as well as, if appropriate, a proposal to adapt it. The Council shall decide on this proposal by 30 June 1990 at the latest'. The proposals were tabled at the meeting of the Education Council on 22 May. The French Presidency intends the Council to

take a final decision in the second half of 1989.

The Commission's proposals for the adaptation of the Erasmus programme, formulated after due consultation with the Erasmus Advisory Committee, are based not only on experience with the implementation of the programme but also on the results of careful monitoring and evaluation carried out over the last year. Every effort has been made to ascertain to what extent the programme is achieving its policy objectives and to identify the main problems which have arisen so far. Detailed discussions have taken place with the appropriate authorities from each Member State and there have been systematic exchanges of views with a cross-section of those most involved in Erasmus, notably programme directors and students. In addition a number of independent studies have been carried out. The main issues examined in all cases included the following: the development of the European University Network, particularly with regard to the balanced participation of all academic disciplines and Member States; the time-scale for support for interuniversity cooperation programmes; arrangements for academic recognition of periods of study spent abroad; the administration of the student grants scheme; and the cultural and linguistic preparation of students.

The aim of the proposed amendments is to introduce improvements in the implementation of Erasmus with a view to increasing substantially the number of students participating while at the same time enhancing the quality of the programme as a whole. While the programme has already managed to bring about a substantial increase in the mobility and exchange of students within the Community, in quantitative terms, a considerable effort is still necessary to attain the declared objective of the Commission — and one

supported by the European Parliament and by the Economic and Social Committee — for the Erasmus programme of boosting the proportion of students who spend a period of study in another Member State at some stage during their university studies to around 10% of the student population by 1992. Given that the average duration of university studies can be taken to be around four years, this implies that from 1992 a minimum of 150 000 students would need each year to spend a period of studies in another Member State of the Community.

It is important not to see the future development of Erasmus in isolation from the wider framework of Community initiatives in the field of training to achieve the single market, in particular the Lingua programme, to be launched as of 1990. The Commission will ensure the coordinated implementation of the Erasmus and Lingua programmes with respect to all aspects affecting higher-education cooperation.

Structure of the proposed adaptations to the Council Decision

Action 1: Establishment and operation of a European University Network

Experience hitherto has served to reaffirm the importance of the European University Network (established under Action 1 of the Annex to the Council Decision) as the essential basis for the long-term development of the Erasmus programme. With a view to consolidating and improving the functioning of this network a number of amendments have been proposed. Firstly, given the need to guarantee the long-term commitment of the participating universities the suggestion is to arrange for the universities selected to be informed of the Commission's intention — subject to the available credits and to satisfactory performance — to provide financial support for a multiannual period. Secondly, with regard to the activities for which support may be granted within Action 1, explicit reference is introduced to provision for an integrated period of foreign language preparation. The good linguistic and cultural preparation of Erasmus students is generally considered to be a necessary precondition of the continued success of the programme.

At the same time an attempt has been made to group together more coherently the various different activities which may be considered as forming part of the European University Network. Thus, joint curriculum development projects, particularly important with a view to introducing the European dimension into the content of courses, and intensive teaching programmes (previously parts of Actions 3 and 4 respectively) have been integrated within Action 1. Similarly, all types of study visits provided for within Erasmus, and at present divided between Actions 1 and 4, have been re-grouped within Action 1.

Action 2: Erasmus student-grants scheme

At present the parameters used to determine the total amount of the student grants allocation to be made to each Member State are the total number of university students as well as the total number of 18 to 25 year-olds in each Member State. A review of these parameters has shown the need to introduce, in addition, a mechanism which will enable corrective measures to be taken at Community level to ensure similar chances for all students wishing to pursue courses of study in other EC Member States. With this aim in view, the Commission proposes setting aside a small proportion, not more than 5%, of the total student-grants budget. This would permit allocations to be made by the Commission to Member States or disciplines deemed to be in particular need.

Considerable difficulties have been observed with the application at national level of the criteria laid down in the Council Decision for the allocation and distribution of grants to students. This reflects the very different grant-awarding systems in operation at national level and the difficulties of ensuring complementarity of national grants — where these exist — and Community support through Erasmus grants. The total amounts awarded to individual students have often been unacceptably small. Member States are therefore requested to provide, in cases of need, for the complementary funding of students to whom mobility grants have been awarded.

The inclusion within the Erasmus programme of provision for students for whom special arrangements are made outside the European University Network to study abroad (often referred to as 'free movers') has led to considerable administrative problems in a number of Member States. Therefore, although provision for such students to train abroad with the assistance of Erasmus — provided they fulfil the eligibility criteria for Erasmus grants — is retained, at this stage of development, in the Decision, the intention is to reduce the participation of 'free movers' by limiting the percentage of the total student-grants budget allocated to

each Member State available to them. Based on experience with the implementation of the programme to date, it seems clear that the organized framework of an interuniversity cooperation programme provides the best conditions for a qualitative improvement and a substantial increase in student mobility at Community level. Thus by 1994 all universities should have introduced the necessary cooperation arrangements so as to avoid having recourse to the formula of 'free movers'.

During the first two years of operation of the programme a certain number of categories of students presently excluded from the Erasmus programme have been identified. This is the case notably for students who, having completed a cycle or course of studies in their own country, would like to continue their studies by acquiring an additional qualification in another Member State. These students are often particularly well motivated, and can be expected to make a particularly important contribution in the perspective of 1992 and the need to create a pool of highly trained manpower with first-hand experience of other Member States. The Commission proposes to cater for this particular category in exceptional cases and within the framework of interuniversity cooperation programmes, on the basis that full academic recognition is granted not by the home university but by the degree-awarding institution in the Member State in which students spend their study abroad period.

The proposals for the next phase of Erasmus also aim at increasing the average length of the period of training spent in another Member State. Thus, while still accepting a minimum period of an academic term (three months), the Commission proposes considering six months as the normal minimum duration of the training period in another Member State for which a grant may be awarded. Moreover, in view of the increased impact of a longer period of study abroad in cultural, linguistic, academic and in particular professional terms, the intention is to move gradually towards the acceptance of a training abroad period of normally one year's duration.

Action 3

No changes are proposed with regard to the content of Action 3 of Erasmus which deals with measures to promote mobility through the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study abroad.

Action 4: Complementary measures to promote student mobility in the Community

In view of the need to be able to support additional forms of cooperation within the Erasmus programme, the Commission proposes extending the scope of the complementary measures provided for within Action 4 to encourage such initiatives on a limited and experimental basis. These are intended principally to provide informational support for Erasmus and to increase mutual awareness of university systems. Given the particular importance of facilitating the dissemination of information on the Erasmus programme, specific provision for such measures is also made in the revised Decision text.

The imposition of a ceiling of 10% of the annual appropriation on Actions 3 and 4 has caused considerable operational problems. These problems are likely to continue in the future, particularly with regard to the future development of the European Community course-credit transfer system (ECTS) provided for within Action 3 of Erasmus. The Commission therefore proposes removing this restriction in respect of Action 3 while maintaining a limit of 5% for Action 4.

Evaluation

With the assistance of the Erasmus Advisory Committee, the Commission has given careful consideration to the design and implementation of appropriate arrangements for the continuing evaluation and monitoring of the Erasmus programme. So as to underline the importance attached to evaluation, the Commission proposes making explicit provision for such measures in the Decision.

Budget

A figure of ECU 192 million has been put forward to cover the needs of the programme over the next three years (1990: ECU 58 million; 1991: ECU 64 million; 1992: ECU 70 million). The means to be put at the disposal of the programme for the next two years will be examined in the light of the evolution of the financial forecasts for the period 1988 to 1992.

This means that in the period up to 1992 the Erasmus programme will not of itself achieve the target objective of 10% student mobility. This goal should, however, be considered as a Community-wide objective to be attained not only by means of the Community contribution. Given the importance the Commission attaches to the principle of subsidiarity, the Member States will be encouraged to accept to finance a share of the total and, indeed, the Commission intends to examine with Member States other resources to achieve the overall objective. In particular, the Member States will be encouraged to conclude agreements at national level to foster mobility.

Conclusions

To allow a smooth transition to the second phase of Erasmus the Commission proposes that the adaptations be implemented from 1 January 1991 (with the exception of the proposed changes in the allocation of the Action 2 student-grants budget which will be implemented from 1 July 1990). This will allow for sound forward planning for the revised arrangements to be introduced in respect of the academic year 1991-92.

The Commission is convinced that in its second phase the Erasmus programme, thus modified, will represent an instrument better tuned to the different university systems, and capable of responding to the needs of the single market and to the development of a people's Europe.

Lingua programme

On 22 May the Council adopted the Lingua programme. This first European Community programme to support the teaching and learning of foreign languages had been very quickly negotiated — proposed by the Commission on 21 December 1988, it was agreed by the Council just six months and one day later — a far shorter time than was needed for Comett or Erasmus, its predecessors as major Community programmes in the field of education.

This article examines the background to the Lingua programme, and sets out briefly its content.

It seems in many ways strange that the Community took so long to reach agreement on activities to support the capacity of its citizens to communicate with each other. From the beginning, the Community's basic texts have underlined that the Community itself is concerned with more than just economics. The Treaty of Rome sets as one of the Community's basic aims the *'ever closer union of the peoples of Europe'*; and, more recently, the Single Act speaks of the need to *'transform relations as a whole between (Member States) into a European Union ...'*. And surely both these aims must require that people within the Community should be able to communicate with each other?

And yet these things take time. When the Council and Ministers for Education meeting within the Council first defined their future programme of joint activities, in their Resolution of 9 February 1976¹ setting up a Community action programme in the field of education, the necessity of improving the teaching of foreign languages was agreed. But although the Commission put forward a modest programme in 1978 to move in that direction, political agreement could not be found and foreign language teaching was left out in the cold.

The debate started again a few years later; in 1984 the Council adopted Conclusions on the teaching of foreign languages,² and in the subsequent years a group of senior officials met under the chairmanship of the Commission, and produced a report on what might be achieved at Community level in the field of foreign-language teaching. But from the beginning of 1988 the interest in the Member States grew greater. In April 1988 the Commission presented a discussion document on foreign-language teaching for the June 1988 Education Council: and suddenly the political will was there. On 21 December 1988 the Lingua programme was adopted as a proposal by the Commission, and on 22 May 1989 it was agreed by the Council.³

Various elements no doubt contributed to the change in heart. One of these must be that the Ministers for Education of the Community's Member States are

becoming increasingly aware of the essential role that education and training must play in preparing the citizens of Europe for the challenge of the single European market after 1992, and to reap the greatest benefit from it. Another, no doubt, is the need felt by the governments of many of the Community's Member States to see that the Community preserves its linguistic diversity, not just in the mother tongue, but also in terms of the foreign languages taught and learnt in schools up and down the Community.

At the end of 1987 the Commission took a survey of young people in the Community — an extension of its regular *Eurobarometer* series, but with a strengthened sample of young people and with a series of specific questions put to them.⁴ A group of these questions concerned their knowledge of foreign languages, and the results were not impressive.

First, although almost all the young people of school-going age in the Community learn at least one foreign language, and many learn more than one, the average number who claim to speak foreign languages is 68%. That is, only about two thirds of the young people who learn foreign languages in school claim to be able to speak one.

Secondly, even when young people learn more than one foreign language, there is still a gap between the number they have learnt and the number they speak. By and large, you speak about half the languages you have learnt — more in some countries, less in others. The cost of that gap, given the numbers of young people in education and training, and the number of school hours devoted to foreign-language teaching, is incalculable.

¹ OJ C 31, 19. 2. 1976.

² Council Document, Press 98.

³ Formal approval followed on 28 July 1989; OJ L 239, 16. 8. 1989.

⁴ Published as 'The young Europeans in 1987' by the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, available through bookshops. Catalogue number CB-55-89-374-EN-C.

Thirdly, most young people (and indeed most adults as well) think that not enough attention is paid to foreign-language teaching. And lack of foreign languages figures as a serious barrier to those considering the possibility of going to work abroad.

So against this background, it is perhaps understandable that the Council should look with favour on the proposal that the Community should provide support in the field of foreign-language teaching. For the Lingua programme does not set out to establish a whole new series of measures, in parallel to those already under way in Member States; it aims rather to support Member States in their own activities, and to bring to those activities a European dimension and a dimension of linguistic diversity that has perhaps been lacking in some cases up to now.

Two fundamental options of the Lingua programme should be set out here. The first is that the programme takes as a starting point the necessity to provide teaching of foreign languages for the purposes of communication. This may sound obvious, but in fact it is not. Many foreign-language teachers have no specific training in the oral language; they often hold a literature qualification, and may or may not have acquired a teacher-training qualification in addition. Of course, this does not imply that the Commission holds literature to be unimportant — far from it. The Commission and the Council both recognize that there will always be those pupils interested in and capable of reading the works of the great authors, Racine, Schiller, Dante or Camus, as foreign literature. But for most young people, what matters is the ability to communicate, coupled with the chance to use their skills in real situations — that is, to go to the country where the language is spoken, and to try it out.

The second fundamental option of the Lingua programme is both inevitable and proper, given the rich cultural diversity of the Community, and its multi-faceted linguistic heritage. The Lingua programme, faced with the choice between encouraging the teaching and

learning of one or two foreign languages only, or of going for greater diversity in the general offer of foreign-language teaching, takes this second line uncompromisingly. At various points in the text of the Lingua programme, the same phrase comes back — 'taking account of the need to promote the less used and less widely taught languages of the Community'. And this is not just a pious hope, it is an essential guideline for the programme's future operations and the use of its resources.

At present the languages of the Community are not equally treated in our schools. The English language is by far the most widely taught and the most widely demanded by young people and their parents. It is arguably also the easiest to teach — not so much for any reason connected with the structure of the language, or with the quality and range of the teaching material available (although this surpasses what is available for any other Community language), but simply because English (or rather 'Anglo-American') is readily available to young people (in advertisements, records, films, television, etc.) giving that language an exposure to young people that no other Community language has. The Lingua programme, in all its various actions, seeks to bring back some balance into the scales between English (followed at some distance by French) and all the rest.

On the other hand, the Lingua programme has its own limitations. First, it is about the teaching of foreign languages. It is not concerned with the teaching of French to young French people, nor about the teaching of (say) Portuguese to young Portuguese, whether in their own country or as the children of migrant workers established in another Member State. Secondly, it will not support all the foreign languages taught within the Community. Faced with the enormous range of languages taught in the Community's schools (in the Inner London area alone, some 150 languages are spoken by the pupils) the programme opts for 11 languages only — those which have official status over all the territory of each of the Community's Member States: Danish, Dutch, English,

French, German, Greek, Irish, Italian, Letzeburgesch, Portuguese and Spanish.

The Lingua programme will function by establishing Community actions to support the policies operated in Member States in the following areas:

- (a) encouraging all citizens to acquire a working knowledge of foreign languages;
- (b) increasing opportunities for teaching and learning foreign languages in the Community and, in particular, encouraging competence in the least widely used and least taught foreign languages;
- (c) promoting the provision of opportunities for university students to combine foreign language studies with the pursuit of their main disciplines, as a recognized component of their degree, diploma or other qualification;
- (d) raising the standard of foreign-language teaching by improving the initial and in-service training of foreign-language teachers and trainers, by increasing the opportunities for them to reap the benefits of appropriate preparation abroad;
- (e) encouraging employers and professional organizations to promote training in foreign languages for the workforce in order to take full advantage of the internal market, with particular reference to the needs of small and medium-sized enterprises and of the peripheral and least developed regions of the Community;
- (f) promoting innovation in methods of foreign-language training, and in the exploitation of the communications technologies used.

(Article 5 of the Lingua Decision)

Five areas of Community action are set up under the programme, to respond to the objectives set out above. In summary, they are as follows:

Action I: Measures to promote the in-service training of teachers

Given the current age pyramid of teachers and the declining number of pupils

in most Member States, it is unlikely that there will be large-scale recruitment of new teachers in the near future. This means that the in-service training of those teachers currently employed is fundamental to the success of any strategy to improve foreign-language teaching. Given the accent placed by the Lingua programme on foreign languages for communication it is only natural that the Commission proposed that there should be a system under which foreign-language teachers could take part in in-service training courses in the country whose language they teach, and that this idea was strongly supported by the Member States.

Action I of the programme provides for Community funds to be used to help bear the cost of in-service training

courses for foreign-language teachers, in the country whose language they teach, and that priority in this support should go to those courses which:

- (a) improve the skills of communication of the teachers and trainers concerned, and their knowledge of the culture of the host Member State;
- (b) encourage diversification in foreign-language teaching;
- (c) encourage competence in the least widely used and least taught languages;
- (d) help teachers and trainers to establish and develop the framework needed to organize educational exchanges.

(Action I, point 4)

The action also enables support to be given to the networking of non-university level in-service training institutions, so as to facilitate the organization of training courses in other Member States and to provide a guarantee of quality in the training delivered.

Action II: Measures to promote the learning of foreign languages in universities and in particular to develop the initial training of foreign-language teachers

Action II of the programme provides in practice for a discipline-based extension of the Erasmus programme. Erasmus is a 'horizontal' programme, open to all disciplines taught at university level.



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However, as one might expect, the number of foreign-language applications to the Erasmus programme is very high, and although the Commission exercises its discretion in accepting or refusing applications so as to preserve some balance between the disciplines inside Erasmus, the fact is that in 1989 some 20% of the interuniversity cooperation programmes supported by the Erasmus programme are in the foreign-languages sector. And yet the demand continues to grow.

The Lingua programme therefore aims to provide extra support for inter-university cooperation and for student exchange in the foreign-languages field. Its priority here lies with those who will one day become foreign-language teachers in schools: the difficulty, however, lies in the question of identifying them. Most future foreign-language teachers do not go through university on a specific teacher-training course. As a general rule, the courses that they take are broad foreign-language courses, and it is only on qualification that the student makes a choice as to whether to be a teacher, an engineer, etc.

So the programme aims wider than just the future teacher. It aims to come in aid of Erasmus in the foreign-languages sector generally, and to support the diversification of provision where possible. (It should perhaps be said also that the Lingua programme does not provide specific funds for pre-departure foreign-language training for students on non-language Erasmus programmes: funding is available through the Erasmus programme itself for that purpose.)

Action III: Measures to promote knowledge of foreign languages used in work relations and in economic life

One innovatory aspect of the Lingua programme is the attention it pays to the use of foreign languages in economic and professional life. Very often neglected in foreign-language training programmes, perhaps because most of the provision is privately funded, this sector is obviously interesting to the Com-

munity in the context of 1992 and the completion of the internal market. The Lingua programme does not set itself up as a major funding source for foreign-language training in companies and elsewhere — the Community's contribution to such training goes through the European Social Fund, whose resources by far exceed those available to the Lingua programme — but it does aim, by limited measures, to support those whose business lies in analysing the foreign-language deficiencies in companies and other bodies, and on providing remedial measures.

First, the programme will support the development and diffusion of analysis techniques. Needs analysis in the foreign-languages field — sometimes known as 'linguistic audit' — is a new technique, but a rapidly developing one. It is an essential technique for the company which accepts that it requires some foreign-language expertise, but cannot itself define that need precisely, nor design the training courses to supply it. For example, in a small company with an export business, the sales staff will need one type of foreign-language knowledge, the technical and support staff another, the secretarial and administrative staff may not need any, but the management probably will. Sorting out the puzzle is the business of linguistic audit, and the technique will be promoted by the Commission within the Lingua programme.

Moving on from there, the Commission will support through the programme both the development of specific teaching materials for individual economic sectors (as it might be, German for those in the chemical industry, or Portuguese for those in the ceramics and pottery trades), as well as specific certification for the learners who have done such courses. The purposes of both these activities, which will obviously be carried out in cooperation with those responsible for the economic sectors in question, is to provide recognized courses which will be understood by employers, and which will contribute to the better qualification of the Community's workforce in this vital area of the internal market.

Action IV: Measures to promote the development of exchanges for young people undergoing professional, vocational and technical education

The purpose of this action is two-fold. First, it has a clear link to the communication aim of the Lingua programme. If young people are to be invited to learn languages for communication, then they should also be given the chance to use them in real situations. If they are to learn about the culture of the target country and the way its people live, then they must be given the opportunity to go and see for themselves precisely the similarities and differences with their own culture and way of life.

But there is also a second objective. Research suggests, to put it simply, that you learn the languages you want to learn. If a person is interested in a language, then he will learn it. If not, then all the hours of foreign-language teaching that the schools care to provide are wasted, because nothing useful will be learnt. Motivation is the key, and motivation to learn foreign languages can be helped by enabling young people to set their sights on the time when they too will visit the country whose language they are learning.

There was a difference here between the Commission and some Member States. The Commission took the view that such experience should be made available to all young people, whether the institutions in which they were learning happened to be 'schools' or 'training establishments'. For some Member States, however, the idea that the Community might have some capacity to intervene in the affairs of schools, however limited it might be (and none of them ever suggested that the Community would in reality intervene in this area) was too much, and so the Lingua Decision finally provides that Community funds in this exchange field shall:

'support the development of educational exchanges for young people undergoing professional, vocational and technical education, of a minimum of 14 days, organized as part of a project of an educational establishment.

It is up to each Member State to define this and to narrow the scope or widen it to, for instance, all those over 16 years or all those in post-compulsory education.'

(Action IV, point 1)

The text continues by specifying that the financial aid provided by the Community shall go to exchange projects 'normally intended for pupils aged between 16 and 25 years'.

Differences of interpretation over the meaning of 'professional, vocational or technical education' are bound to appear; but the second paragraph quoted above would appear to allow sufficient latitude to each Member State to insert the provision into its own education or training structure.

Priority in the allocation of the funds is given to those projects which:

- (a) develop innovatory exchange experiments for young people in professional, vocational or technical education or in the field of foreign-language learning;
- (b) emphasize the European dimension in professional, vocational or technical education;
- (c) support the teaching of the least widely used and least taught languages in the Community.

(Action IV, point 4)

Action V: Complementary measures

This action enables the Commission to provide support to associations and other bodies active in the Community whose aims are similar to those of the Lingua programme. The value of such an action has become clear in the Erasmus programme, where the same type of support is available. It will enable such associations to extend their work, and to undertake new projects which accord with the general aims of the Lingua programme; and, since Lingua itself clearly cannot accomplish everything that is needed in this vast field, every supporting activity must be welcome.

This action also provides the Commission with the means to support the administrative structures in Member States which are necessary for the decentralized operation of the programme. For, in contrast to Erasmus or Comett, considerable parts of this programme are to be managed at Member State level; and the programme thus provides for the Commission to be able to support the creation of a network of communication between national structures, so as to contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the Lingua programme. This action also provides the Commission with the technical support it will need at European level in the management of the programme.

Timetable

The programme was agreed in May 1989; it does not become effective until 1 January 1990, and even then, not all the actions will become operative at once. Given its experience in having to launch the Erasmus programme in a matter of weeks, the Commission has built into the Lingua programme a sufficient space of time for its own preparations as well as for those of the Member States — essential in a decentralized programme. In practice, therefore, the only action that will commence in the academic year 1990/91 is Action II — the activity in universities and in support of the initial training of foreign-language teachers. All the other activities will come into effect during the next year, so that by the academic year 1991/92 the whole programme will be in operation.

Conclusion

This article clearly does not set out the entire content of the Lingua programme. The text of the Council Decision setting up the programme is available, and over the next 12 months the various criteria for grants and the operating mechanisms necessary for the smooth running of the programme will be drawn up and made available.

Further information is available from the Commission's Task Force for Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth.

David Coyne

Comett I and Comett II

Comett stands for the European Community programme on cooperation between universities and industry regarding training in the field of technology. Comett is a multiannual programme of European Community financial support for initiatives designed to promote university-industry cooperation in the field of training for technology.

The first phase of Comett (Comett I) was introduced in 1986 with a three-year operational phase between 1987 and 1989.

The second operational phase of Comett (Comett II) is for a five-year period beginning on 1 January 1990.

The general objectives of Comett

Comett aims at reinforcing training in technology (particularly advanced technology), the development of highly skilled human resources and the competitiveness of European industry. It is concerned with needs which can and should be met through cooperation at European Community level.

The specific objectives of Comett

1. The contribution of technology training to economic and social development

to improve the contribution of, in particular, advanced technology training at the various levels concerned and thus the contribution of training to the economic and social development of the Community.

2. Joint university-industry training efforts

to foster the joint development of training programmes and the exchange of experience, and also the optimum use of training resources at Community level, notably through the creation of transnational sectorial and regional networks of, in particular, advanced technology training projects.

3. Training needs of small and medium-sized firms

to respond to the specific skill requirements of small and medium-sized businesses having regard to specified priority measures.

4. Equal training opportunities for men and women

to promote equal opportunities for men and women in initial and continuing training in, in particular, advanced technology.

5. Promoting the European dimension

to give a European dimension to cooperation between universities and industry in initial and continuing training relating to technologies and their applications and transfer.

The operational components of Comett

In order to meet the general objectives, Comett II focuses on three inter-related areas of action, each of which constitutes a 'strand' within the programme as a whole:

Strand A: European network of university-enterprise training partnerships

The development and reinforcement of university-enterprise training partnerships (UETPs) and the extension of the European network, both regional and sectorial, in order to further transnational cooperation in the field of technology training.

Strand B: Transnational exchanges of students and personnel

Grants for transnational exchanges of:

- (i) students undergoing periods of training from three to 12 months in enterprises in another Member State;

- (ii) students who have just completed their initial training, either enrolled at a university or after graduation and as a transition between study and a first employment, taking up placements of six months to two years in an enterprise in another Member State;
- (iii) personnel seconded for up to 12 months from universities and industry to industry or a university respectively in another Member State for the improvement of the education and training activities.

Strand C: Joint projects for continuing training in technology and for multimedia distance training

Three types of project fall under this heading:

- (a) support for crash training courses with a European dimension in technology (particularly advanced technology);
- (b) support for work on devising, developing and testing at European level joint training projects in technology (particularly advanced technology);
- (c) support for multilateral arrangements for training in technology (particularly advanced technology) aimed at establishing systems for distance education utilizing the new training technologies and/or resulting in transferable training products.

There is additionally a fourth strand (Strand D), which comprises a range of complementary promotion, evaluation, and back-up measures.

In broad terms the type of activities supported under Comett II will be similar to the training actions under Comett I. The main differences are:

- (1) While Comett I had to start from scratch, Comett II has already a solid base to build on, in particular the more than 100 university-enterprise training partnerships existing, many of which are expected to remain

under Comett II, besides new ones, both regional and sectorial.

- (2) Strand B has been modified to allow a wider range of transnational exchanges, while preserving industry-university cooperation, and higher flexibility in the award of grants.
- (3) The complementary Strands C and D under Comett I have been merged into a single Strand C under Comett II, keeping the same type of training actions. In addition, it is foreseen to launch a number of pilot projects under this strand.
- (4) Strand D in Comett II (comparable with Strand E in Comett I) has been made more explicit to include a wide range of services to the programme as well as monitoring and evaluation actions.

General eligibility criteria for the selection of projects

The following eligibility criteria will determine the eligibility of projects for consideration for Comett support:

University-industry cooperation: Any cooperation must involve both university and industry as defined in the previous paragraph.

A transnational European Community framework: Projects must be conducted within a transnational European Community framework, i.e. the project partners must come from at least two different Member States.

Post-secondary training level: Projects must relate to post-secondary training, either at initial or continuing level.

Technology and technology-related training: Comett projects must concern training for technology, applications of technology or technology-related subjects.

Characteristics of projects to be supported

The following are the characteristics of the projects which Comett may support:

Strong industry commitment and participation: The projects supported should be able to demonstrate that industry is firmly committed to their aims and outputs and that industry will participate actively in the achievement of those aims and outputs.

Synergy with other European Community strategies: The Commission will take a special interest in projects which complement (without duplicating particular actions) its general policy strategies, notably with regard to:

- (a) other European Community education and training programmes, such as EuroTecNet and Erasmus;
- (b) European Community research and development, where Comett complements the actions undertaken within the framework programme;
- (c) European Community regional policy, where the relationship of the projects accepted to regional policy initiatives will be of special importance;
- (d) European Community industrial policy, particularly in regard to small and medium-sized firms.

Balanced economic and social development: In conformity with the desire for balanced economic development in Europe expressed in the Comett Decision, the Commission will seek to ensure that the selection of Comett projects takes full account of the diverse situations and needs within the 12 Member States. Due account will be taken of the sizes of enterprises, the extent of technological development in the country in question and the extent to which a project includes measures to surmount language barriers which might pose special obstacles to cooperation across national frontiers.

Project content which meets the Comett objectives: The projects supported

should be capable of demonstrating that they can make a high-quality contribution to the achievement of the Comett objectives. In examining projects, the Commission will examine the following aspects of content: priority for new skills, novel and innovative quality and interdisciplinary character.

Stimulative and exemplary character:
The projects should not only be of high intrinsic quality but should also be such as to stimulate similar developments within the Community's industry and universities, and thereby will serve as models for similar initiatives.

The operational timetable and budget for Comett II

Comett II is a five-year programme commencing on 1 January 1990.

The budget estimate for the five-year period of Comett II amounts to ECU 200 million. This sum is intended to cover all

the actions supported under the four strands of the programme. The budget is a significant increase compared to Comett I, where the financial provision was ECU 45 million.

The Community support under Comett is, with some minor exceptions, allocated on a principle of cost-sharing between the Community and those undertaking the project. For every project supported, there is a maximum amount which can be met by the Community. These maximums vary from strand to strand and are as follows:

Strand	Maximum Community proportion	Maximums operating (ECU)
A	50%	70 000 per UETP in first year 60 000 per UETP in second year 50 000 per UETP in third year
B		Maximum amounts varying between ECU 6 000 and ECU 25 000 (depending on nature and duration) Duration between three and 24 months
C	50%	Maximum amounts varying between ECU 30 000 for short courses and ECU 500 000 for joint training projects
D	100%	Preparatory visits: ECU 1 000 Other actions: not specified

The Community contribution is a ceiling amount. It should be noted that in order to assist the maximum number of projects the contribution actually awarded may be considerably less than that stated.

Like in Comett I, there will be several calls for applications in Comett II. The number and type of the calls for applications will be decided as the programme develops. There will not be necessarily an annual call for applications for all strands. For 1990, the deadline for submissions under Strand A, B and C has been fixed on 28 February 1990.

Further information

Detailed information on the implementation of the Comett programme will be available from November 1989 onwards. Like for Comett I, each Member State will appoint an Information Centre for Comett where all relevant documentation is available.

Additional information can be obtained from:

Comett Technical Assistance Unit,
71, Avenue de Cortenberg/Kortenberg-
laan 71, B-1040 Brussels

Training young people for 1992: New developments in the Petra programme

The development of European training partnerships between the first wave of projects designated to take part in the Petra programme is now well under way. Most of them will be putting forward partnership proposals to the Commission in the next few months.

The Petra programme was set up by a Decision of the Council of Social Affairs Ministers on 1 December 1987. Its aims are twofold. First, to strengthen and diversify initial training provision for young people in each Member State so that all those who wish can have access to at least a year, and preferably two or more years, of high-quality vocational training. Secondly, it is exploring how such training can be made more 'European', to prepare young people for the evolving labour markets of 1992 and beyond. It will do this by the development of many kinds of transnational training, involving co-operation between training authorities and agencies in two or more Member States, and by analysing and publishing the results, as models for others to follow or adapt. It involves the Education and Labour Ministries in many Member States, in active cooperation, and, at Community level, they are represented together by their officials in a national policy coordinators' group which advises the Commission on the conduct of the programme.

By the end of 1988, over 150 training projects, each aimed at improving provision in its particular field, were nominated by Education and Labour Ministries in the 12 Member States to form a European network of training initiatives. This year the task has been to help them cope with the difficult task of finding a partner with whom they can develop a cooperation programme of a European character. Each project was provided with a Directory summarizing data on all projects in the network, and most were later invited to one of a series of three contact seminars, according to the thematic area of their work, to help them find a partner or partners.

The projects designated vary greatly in character. The first analysis made by the Commission's Technical Support Unit¹ showed that the largest group was of projects aimed at young drop-outs or young unemployed, who are a major worry in nearly all the Member States. The need to work together to improve ways of linking training for such young people to opportunities for employment (or for the creation of new employment) in the local area or region, was strongly reflected in these project representatives' discussions in the seminars.

A second common concern reflected by the projects is the need to improve the quality of training by providing better support for those who do the training — the teachers and trainers themselves. Cooperative action between countries on this aspect is likely to be widespread and of interest to nearly all participants.

Many of the projects are directed already to exploring how training courses can be adapted to take account of the new opportunities and requirements of the unified market. The international simulated enterprise, or minicompany concept, will link up projects as far apart as Denmark, the United Kingdom, Italy and Portugal. There is growing interest in an Irish-led network bringing together projects in Spain, France and Scotland who want to use minicompanies as tools for transnational learning. They plan to design, manufacture and market joint products together. A key element will be co-operation of staff training on such as-

pects as planning classroom activities, methodology and timetabling. An international minicompany partnership was launched simultaneously at ceremonies on both sides of the border by Luxembourg and French training projects on 31 May 1989 which were attended by Ministers from both countries and HRH the Crown Prince of Luxembourg.

Another group of projects is particularly concerned with increasing girls' participation in training, and technical training in particular. In the European labour markets of the 1990s, with young people in very short supply in many regions, this is likely to be an area of much greater interest than it has been in the past.

Changing labour markets, and the need for educational and vocational guidance specialists to work more closely together in the framework of 1992, are the concerns of another group of projects. Among them are also projects which aim at the closer integration of guidance with other services, to improve their support for young people who are likely to leave school with few, or no, qualifications, and those who have already done so.

The development of 'new qualifications', i. e. the training needed to prepare young people for new kinds of occupation, arising from changes in technology and process on the one hand, and from new European developments on the other — is also a major theme. Aquaculture specialists, water purification workers, environmental managers, cooks trained in traditional regional cuisine, multi-lingual guides — these are among the occupations, some new, some more familiar, on which training projects will be linking up across national frontiers.

¹ The Commission's Technical Support Unit for Petra is provided by Ilaplan (Square Ambiorix 32, B-1040 Brussels) for the training initiative network, and for the youth initiatives projects which are not discussed in this article; and by ITS (at the same address) for the Research Strand, which is the subject of the following article in this issue.

What happens when they form such links?

The Commission will be receiving the projects' partnership proposals in a few months' time, when they have visited all their possible partners and drawn up an agreed plan of activity with the partner or partners of their choice. So at present it is not known exactly what they will propose. But many partnerships will include an exchange of students, or staff, or both. Many intend to exchange teaching materials, and some will be developing new materials jointly. Some will be comparing teaching strategies or approaches, and hoping to learn from each other. Some partnerships may result in the development of a joint certificate, recognized in each country. Others may lead to more extensive links and joint activities between the institutions concerned. A great deal of language learning, not only by students but by staff too, seems sure to result. So will a lot of staff development, in the sense of greater awareness of what goes on in other countries' training systems, what job opportunities there are abroad, and what obstacles there are to movement between countries.

The fact that three contact seminars have been run this year to enable most of the training projects to find a partner abroad, reflects the modest level of familiarity with their European counterparts among many training institutions and agencies which prevails at present.

There are, it is true, some vocational schools and colleges which send large numbers of their students abroad on visits or placements in a firm, generally during the summer vacations. The scale of such visits will always be hard to survey accurately but the Petra Support Unit will be collecting and reporting on the existing data as one of its priority tasks. What is sure to emerge is that the pattern of movement is very patchy: some countries are doing a lot already, and within them some colleges and schools will stand out. But the majority of countries and their training institutions have little experience or know-how about training in other Member States.

This has got to change. The aim of Petra's European training initiatives network and the partnerships now being formed by it, will be to develop and make known as many ways as possible of 'going European' in vocational training for young people. Initiatives and schemes outside the programme will be examined, as well as the work of the projects inside it, wherever they have something substantial to offer to achieve this aim. The active involvement of bodies who already have transnational links (or potential ones) especially big companies and trade unions, could be helpful on this aspect. By the end of the programme a wide variety of different 'models' will have been assisted and described in published form.

Another vehicle for increasing co-operation within Petra is the Community programme of study visits for vocational training specialists, coordinated by Cedefop in Berlin.¹ In 1989, 325 grants for visits are being awarded, and at least as many in 1990. National liaison officers in each country handle the applications and a list of them is available on request from Cedefop.

Petra itself will take more projects into its network in 1990. But to achieve its aim of diversifying and extending the range of 'models', it is likely that the projects to take part in this second wave will be hand-picked, and most of them will probably need to have had some experience of European partnership already, so that they can help develop quickly partnership activities which break new ground.

As for the others, they should be able to benefit before long from the publication of reports on how to twin, exchange, and collaborate successfully, based on the experience of the partnerships now being formed. *Cedefop news* will be the place to look for details of these reports, as they start to appear, during 1990.

¹ Cedefop, Bundesallee 22, D-1000 Berlin 15.

Petra programme: Research strand

Introduction

The preceding article looked at progress in developing one of the main strands of Petra, the European network of training initiatives. There are three other strands: the youth initiatives projects; the study visit programme for vocational training experts, run by Cedefop; and the research strand. This contribution focuses on the aims, research themes and organizational features of the research strand.

Objectives

The completion of the internal market and particularly the free movement of labour, is creating a greater interest in Member States in the quality of training because it is a factor which can affect their competitiveness in the market and throughout the world. Considerable resources have been, and will be, devoted to improving education and training systems within the Community and, of course, research is one of the means which national policy-makers have at their disposal. It can help them improve the quality of training and also monitor the effectiveness of their policies, including the cost effectiveness of initial training for young people. It is the field of initial training which is the concern of Petra. The Petra research strand is intended to develop cooperation between research projects focused on training issues by creating opportunities for such projects to take part in transnational research partnerships.

It is envisaged that such European partnerships, i.e. a group of projects, working together, bilaterally or multilaterally, on a similar topic will help:

- (a) to create opportunities to plan and evaluate national studies within a European context. Pooling expertise on design, implementation and analysis should help improve the quality of the studies, and being able to compare 'national' conclusions with those of one's partners should increase their value to the formulation of future policy within a European context;
- (b) to develop models for transnational cooperation in research on initial training. Participating projects will have opportunities to develop, plan and implement transnational studies and it is hoped that these models will be useful to other research institutes and encourage them to set up their own partnerships outside the framework of Petra;
- (c) to stimulate further concerted action between Member States on research issues and priorities within the field of initial training. The perspective of 1992 will have major implications for

all involved in research. It is important that consultation should take place between those national authorities which are responsible for establishing research priorities. Through this consultation, common concerns can be identified and common lines of action can be agreed. The research strand will assist this cooperation which in turn, can avoid duplication and help to create a common research framework in the field of vocational training.

Themes for the research partnerships

To identify relevant themes for the launch of the research strand, an analysis has been made of the Decision of the Council of Ministers¹ in relation to research and the priorities of the projects participating in the European network of training initiatives. This analysis helps to ensure links between the network and the research strand and to create conditions for mutual support and cooperation. The process resulted in the choice of five themes for the research partnerships.

Theme 1: National and European-level responses to changing needs for vocational skills

The quality of vocational training is inextricably bound up with questions about the degree to which a training system is successful in passing on the skills which young people need for the labour market. However, as these requirements are continuously changing, all training systems are faced with the challenge of keeping up to date with developments in the labour market. In addition, training authorities are also becoming more aware of the implications which 1992 will, or may, have in terms of new or additional forms of training. The most ob-

¹ OJ L 346, 10. 12. 1987.

vious example is that the free movement of workers is directly related to the issues concerned with mutual recognition and comparability of qualifications.

So a state-of-the-art review on the procedures and mechanisms which exist within each Member State, to identify and respond to changing skills requirements, will be undertaken. In this review, emphasis will be placed not on the changing skills requirements in a particular sector of the economy but, rather, on the mechanisms, procedures and strategies which are used to identify and respond to these requirements.

It is hoped that this review will enhance mutual understanding of new structures and mechanisms to adapt and update training, stimulate and support consultation and cooperation between the responsible authorities on questions such as mutual recognition and the future development of their systems and lead to further collaborative studies and actions in this theme area.

Theme 2: Approaches to monitoring participation trends in vocational training

Initial training has become more diverse, in the type, length and level of courses which have been offered in recent years. In addition to mainstream training normally offered at the end of full-time compulsory education, Member States have introduced specialized types of youth training, often for drop-outs or low-achievers within the school-system. The introduction of modular elements in training programmes has also increased the choices available to such young people. For policy purposes, training authorities must have an overview of the level of participation in, and effectiveness of, the variety of training options.

Within Theme 2, research projects will jointly explore and develop a set of criteria or guidelines to monitor the flow of young people through the various options. The major advantages of such an approach is that it should not only provide national authorities with information

which they need but that it should also allow for better comparative examination of the take-up of the various training measures in Member States. Such an analysis will also contribute to the Petra aim of improving standards of training in the Community.

Theme 3: The improvement of pre-vocational and special youth training programmes

Most Member States have launched special training programmes or adapted mainstream training to cater for the needs of those young people who leave secondary education without any recognized or useful qualifications. These programmes help young people to enter regular training and to improve their long-term job prospects. The programmes usually have a broad range of objectives and methods as they must be flexible and cater for the needs of the individual.

Within Theme 3, projects which aim to evaluate the success of such programmes and to analyse the factors contributing to this success, will be linked together.

Theme 4: Improving the training of trainers

Trainers in schools, colleges and firms are vitally important to the process of improving the quality of vocational training. They need access to opportunities to improve and to update their teaching skills in areas such as the relationship between trainees' work experience and the content of the academic curriculum, the implementation of new assessment procedures and the adaptation of their teaching methods to the particular needs of trainees.

Research projects concerned with studies on the identification of the training needs of trainers and/or the assessment of the effectiveness of such training provision will participate in partnerships formed with this theme.

Theme 5: New models for vocational guidance

The provision of educational and vocational guidance for young people either in the last years of compulsory education, or in the first years thereafter, is confronted by a number of issues such as the evolution of job-structures on the labour market, the need to give special attention to actual or potential drop-outs, and the introduction of more effective ways of putting across information to young people.

Under this theme, partnerships will be set up between projects involved in the evaluation of guidance programmes targeted at disadvantaged youth or in the assessment of feedback strategies to transfer information about labour-market needs and expectations to guidance systems.

Organizational features of the research strand

As has been indicated above, the research strand comprises a number of research partnerships. Each partnership will consist of two or more projects working on one of the themes described above. How are these partnerships to be established? The first thing to note is that the strand is not open to general applications although, of course, expressions of interest in it are always welcome. In order to stay within budgetary limits and achieve a balanced participation by research institutes in each theme across Member States, an indirect nomination procedure has been used. In April 1989, the Commission invited the Petra national policy coordinators to nominate institutes which could be regarded as 'leading' on a particular theme. At a meeting in autumn 1989, representatives of these institutes will meet to establish their partnerships and to plan their joint activity.

Research partnership activities could include:

- (a) carrying out in-depth analysis of each others' research plans;

- (b) exchanging existing or new data on aspects of training;
- (c) exchanging staff;
- (d) developing similar research methods (tests, questionnaires, etc.) and data-analysis techniques to improve comparability of data and outcomes;
- (e) developing joint project proposals.

Each participant will receive an annual grant of up to ECU 20 000 which may be renewed for a further year. As it is assumed that the project's operational costs have been financed by other sources, the Commission's grant is meant to cover only those costs which will result from activities undertaken with one or more of the other research projects within the partnership.

In some cases a grant of up to ECU 25 000 will be offered to research institutes to engage in specific studies which will be coordinated at European level (e. g. in the first phase of the state-of-the-art review under Theme 1).

Projects will have to build up their own partnership and as part of this process, contact with Cedefop will be very important both in ensuring the exchange of information relevant to particular themes and in linking up with other Cedefop sponsored projects.

Each partnership will have to submit an annual report to the Commission which should contain:

- (i) a review of the outcomes of the joint activities in relation to the aims of the research projects which should also explain the added value of the European dimension; and
- (ii) a comprehensive analysis and assessment of the process of cooperation which should provide a critical evaluation of the way in which it was planned and implemented and identify its successes and failures.

Information about new partnership models developed in the Petra research strand will be disseminated through a series of publications and workshops.

Further information about the research strand may be obtained from:

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The Netherlands 6500 KJ Nijmegen
Tel: +31/80 780111
Telefax: +31/80 777990
or
Ifaplan
Square Ambiorix 32
PO Box 19
B-1040 Brussels
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Education — Vocational training

Analyses, debates, studies

Guidance in higher education

Challenges facing student counselling services in Europe

Introduction

Educational and vocational guidance services have an important role to play in advanced societies in order to enable individuals to obtain maximum benefit from the wide variety of study possibilities available and to find those which best meet their needs while responding at the same time to the needs of society as a whole. All of the European Community's Member States recognize the value of such services in achieving the best use of their most valuable asset: their human resources. A study of such services for the 14 to 25 age-group, whose recommendations were featured last year in *Social Europe* No 3/87¹ was recently carried out for the Commission of the European Communities. The synthesis report on the study² emphasized that guidance should be a continuous process starting in the secondary school and going on into adult life. The role of professional guidance services is changing at all levels in response to pressures from society, employers and the educational institutions themselves. This is especially true in higher education, where counsellors must respond to the diversification of the sector in the 1960s and 1970s, the increasing mobility of students, and new demographic changes which are affecting the nature of the student population.

Guidance services in higher education in the Community

The role of guidance services

It is essential that comprehensive advice is available in the secondary schools so that pupils are well informed about the great variety of higher educational opportunities available. There is also a need for close contact between counsellors in schools and higher education institutions so that young people are oriented towards the most appropriate kind of courses which correspond to their needs and abilities. Guidance services are then available to them within the higher education sector, tending to be most developed in the universities, particularly in northern Europe, and less so in more technical or vocational institutions, although specialist services are developing steadily in all countries, including those in the south of the Community. There are, however, great differences in the range of services provided.

In most higher education institutions, academic counselling is considered to be part of the responsibility of the student's professor. However, the choice of course often has a direct bearing on the career which the student hopes to enter so it is vital to make the right selection from the start. For those students who have not yet decided what they wish to do when they enter the workforce it is important to choose courses which leave open the widest range of professional options. Academic counsellors benefit from close contact with specialist careers advisory services where these exist within the institution. Such specialists may be limited to giving information and advice about career possibilities or they may be able to offer a range of other services including information on jobs available. In some countries such placement services are provided only by the State and outside the higher education institutions themselves.

During the course of their studies, students may encounter difficulties with their work or have personal problems of one kind or another which prevent them from making satisfactory progress. In such cases, the student often turns to a teacher for advice, but faced with the growth of student numbers and the growing demands on academic staff time, many institutions have appointed specialist counsellors, often with psychological training, to help students with problems of this sort. In addition, special offices have also been set up in many institutions to give all kinds of practical information and advice which a student may need such as help in finding accommodation. Very often student associations are involved in providing this kind of information. Students in higher education are the professionals and highly-skilled manpower of the future. It is important, therefore, that as many as possible complete their studies successfully. Many countries see the provision of counselling and other services for students as an important element in ensuring the success of the largest number possible.

Availability of guidance services in the Member States

Perhaps the most highly developed student services are to be found in the United Kingdom and Ireland where most institutions have an elaborate system of personal and academic counselling for their students backed up by specialist student careers officers who provide information and advice on job opportunities, arrange interviews with prospective employers, and generally help the individual student to choose the type

¹ Educational and vocational guidance services for the 14 to 25 age-group in the European Community, *Social Europe* No 3/87, p. 70.

² *Educational and vocational guidance services for the 14 to 25 age-group in the European Community* by A. G. Watts with C. Dartois and P. Plant, Education Policy Series 2, Presses interuniversitaires européennes, Maastricht, 1988.

of employment which matches his abilities and aspirations. Many institutions have specialist offices which provide help to students in finding accommodation.

Information and placement services are well developed too in Belgian and Dutch universities. In Belgium most higher education institutions provide help in choosing a curriculum and also provide information services which include advice on job prospects. The advisory services generally include psychological counselling for those students who may need help at any time during their studies. Most institutions in the Netherlands also provide such services with special facilities for foreign students through foreign students offices and student affairs offices. Some also have a Dean of Students specially responsible for foreign students.

In France and Germany counselling services tend to specialize in educational advice. In France all universities have a special office for foreign students (SUEE) and a Centre for Information and Orientation (CUIO) which gives advice to all students including information on employment prospects. The latter also provides counselling services to local schools thus helping to ensure a smooth transition from the secondary to the tertiary level. In Germany careers guidance is given by the Federal Employment Institute so universities concentrate on personal counselling and advice on course choice. Special orientation sessions are usually held at the beginning of a course of study.

Denmark has both full and part-time counsellors who provide educational advice and help with personal problems. Often specialist social counsellors, psychiatrists and psychologists are available. In recent years there has been a growth of specialist counsellors to provide information on careers possibilities, although this is normally provided by the Danish Labour Exchanges. Luxembourg does not have a full university system but there is a special office to advise students on the courses which are available and a central service for careers advice.

The picture is somewhat different in southern Europe. Some universities in Spain have on campus a guidance and job-information centre run by the national employment institute within the Ministry of Labour and all have student secretariats and information offices for foreign students. Universities in Italy do not generally provide placement services, but all have a foreign students office which provides information about planning a course of study. Student advisory services are less well developed in Portugal and Greece, though they are beginning to appear in some institutions, particularly in the technical education institutions (TEIs).

Challenges facing student counsellors

Mobility of students

About six million students are currently studying in the 3 500 higher education institutions in the European Community. Of these, only a very small number (about 75 000) of nationals of one Member State are following courses in another Member State.¹ However, a rapidly increasing number of students are spending periods of from three months to one academic year studying abroad under the Erasmus programme — about 40 000 will have participated in the first three years from 1987-90. This number is expected to grow rapidly, especially with the introduction of the first Lingua students in 1990-91. In addition the Commission is launching in the autumn of this year the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), a six-year pilot programme, which it is hoped will eventually pave the way for a more generalized course-credit transfer system within the Community. The Commission has set a target of 150 000 exchange students for the year 1992 (about 10% of the student population if one calculates that the average course lasts for four years). This is an ambitious figure, but it is clear that student mobility is going to increase substantially in the next few years.

There is great enthusiasm amongst young people to take advantage of the possibilities now available to follow courses abroad in a different linguistic and cultural environment, but which courses and which institution to choose? What information is available about the institutions and what they offer, about the teaching methods, the teachers concerned and how does the student find out about practical arrangements — how to find somewhere to stay, what are the administrative procedures which are necessary to register at the chosen institution, etc.? What are the services which the institution can provide to help the foreign student in a new linguistic and cultural environment? What impact is being made by these modern equivalents of the ambient student of medieval times, on the advisory services of higher education institutions?

Most importantly, there is a growing demand for more information. It is no longer sufficient for a student counsellor to be able to give advice about courses in his own institution or even on a national basis. More and more students are asking about the possibilities of following some of their course of study at least in another country. This means that the advisory services need to extend their information sources to cover higher education systems in other countries, including information about the kinds of courses and degrees offered, how the various countries give recognition for higher education entrance qualifications obtained in other EC countries, what application procedure has to be followed and a host of other details. In order to help advisers and students the European Commission has a number of publications which provide information on

¹ Figures based on statistics supplied in the fifth edition of *Higher Education in the European Community: Student Handbook*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1988.

the different systems.¹ The Commission also supports a network of national academic recognition information centres (Narics) throughout the Community to provide advice on the recognition of qualifications awarded by institutions both within the EC and elsewhere in the world. A study has recently been undertaken of the possibilities of linking up computerized information on higher education systems and courses in higher education throughout the Community.

Faced with the growing number of Erasmus students spending part of their period of study abroad, many institutions are setting up an Erasmus office or nominating a special Erasmus person to cope with the special needs of these and other foreign students, who often need special help in finding accommodation, a particular problem in the cities with large universities, and in settling in to both a strange academic and cultural environment. The quite extensive evaluation of the programme undertaken so far indicates that the students generally find the experience of study abroad exciting and valuable both in their academic and in their future professional career, but the first few weeks are crucial and the help of student counselling services at this time normally contributes greatly to the success of the exchange. These new demands also imply an extended range of language ability on the part of the counsellors and have created pressures for more international contact and cooperation amongst them.

Diversification of the higher education sector

Other challenges to which student counselling services are having to respond relate to the diversification of the higher education sector. With the growth in the 1960s and 1970s of the non-university sector, e.g. polytechnics in the United Kingdom *Fachhochschule* in the Federal Republic of Germany, technical university institutes in France, in response to a massive increase of the 18 to 20 year-old population in many countries in Europe, a vast range of new courses and new

possibilities were opened up. Many of these were more vocationally oriented than those in the universities with different admissions requirements and leading to a range of careers not available to university graduates. In recent years, the universities themselves have begun to diversify, offering a range of new degree and diploma programmes. This makes even more complicated the choice of course and even more bewildering the tracing of a path through the system. Again new areas of expertise have to be mastered by student counsellors, both those established in the new institutions and those in the universities to which the non-university sector sometimes provided transfer possibilities. For specialist counsellors, close liaison with academic advisers became ever more important and careers advisers in particular had to extend the range of their competence in response to changing job markets, and the development of new technology and skills.

Changing patterns of access to higher education

In most countries there will be a reduction in the 1990s in the numbers of the 18 to 20 year-old age group, the normal entry age into higher education. Opening up of access to other categories, many of whom will not have the traditional school-leaving qualifications, older students and women, is high on the agenda of many institutions. Advising such students on possible paths through the higher education system and dealing with their special problems, such as the need to develop study and learning techniques after several years' break from the academic system, are new areas demanding additional skills and training for counsellors.

The impact of 1992

Further challenges must now be faced as higher education in many EC countries adapts to the changing demands of society and of the economy as the twenty-first century approaches and

in particular to the consequences of the creation of the single market in 1992. Higher education institutions will play a crucial role in providing even higher levels of skills for the workforce, in responding to the new technologies, improving the language ability of young people to enable them to take advantage of the possibilities for mobility and in preparing women to play an increasing role in traditionally male sectors of the labour force. They must also respond to the growing need for in-service training and retraining in new skills of the workforce in response to technological advance and contribute to the increasing demands for continuing education.

The role of international cooperation

Faced with these challenges, student counsellors in higher education institutions have recognized the need to exchange information and to cooperate together both within institutions where separate specialist services exist and on a national and international basis. On the initiative of the Italian Rui Foundation, a series of international meetings has been held, in 1981 in Castelgandolfo (Italy), in 1985 in Paris (France) and in

¹ *Higher Education in the European Community: Student Handbook — A directory of courses and institutions in 12 countries*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, published annually and now in its fifth edition.

Directory of higher education institutions, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2nd edition forthcoming 1990. *A guide to higher education qualifications*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, forthcoming February 1990.

Academic recognition of higher education entrance, intermediate and final qualifications in the European Community: Multilateral and bilateral conventions, unilateral decisions, Commission of the European Communities, June 1989 (available in English and in French; other languages in preparation).

Academic recognition of higher education qualifications in the European Community Member States, Commission of the European Communities, forthcoming 1990.

Working in the European Communities, a guide for graduate recruiters and job-seekers by A. J. Raban, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, forthcoming 1990.

1988 in Delphi (Greece). These meetings brought together a wide variety of student counsellors (careers specialists, personal and educational counselling specialists) working in institutions, government ministries and other bodies, from a large number of EC countries.

On the eve of the meeting in Delphi in October 1988 an international association, the European Forum on Academic Guidance (Fedora), was created. This association aims to create a more solid network of contacts amongst all kinds of student counsellors within the EC in order to ensure an exchange of experience and cooperation between them. It is planned to promote research and training activities and in particular to ensure an exchange of information about the different educational systems, and about Community programmes. This is an important initiative which it is hoped will contribute to improving the quality of existing services and encouraging their development where they are not widespread, in order to enable students

throughout the Community to obtain the help they need in preparing themselves to take full advantage of the educational opportunities which are already available and the new ones which will arise from the creation of the single market in 1992.

Conclusions

The growth of study abroad in Europe, encouraged by the Commission's Erasmus programme, highlights the need for guidance services to help students choose the most appropriate courses to follow. In addition, the diversification of higher education at all levels and the changing demands of the employment market give students today a sometimes bewildering choice through which they must plan a path which will lead to relevant job opportunities. The changing demographic trends, which will mean a reduction in the school-leaving population in most Member States in the 1990s, with the consequent emphasis in many countries on opening up

access to higher education to a wider range of the population, especially women and mature students, also place new demands on guidance services. Faced with these challenges, student counsellors have recognized the need to exchange information and to cooperate together on an international basis. The third European Conference on University Guidance, which brought together about 150 counsellors, academics and administrators from all Community countries, took place in Delphi between 2 and 6 October 1988. On the eve of the meeting an international association, the European Forum on Academic Guidance (Fedora) was established to coordinate and promote the development of collaboration amongst those concerned with student guidance in higher education in the European Community. The Commission is supporting these and other initiatives in order to enable students to obtain the help they need in preparing themselves to take full advantage of the opportunities which arise from the creation of the single market in 1992.

European value-added in advanced training for technology

A mid-term Comett Conference Brussels, 1 and 2 December 1988

The benefits of European co-operation are now being demonstrated through the Comett¹ programme. That was one of the key conclusions of over 200 delegates at the mid-term Comett conference on European value-added in advanced training for technology, held in Brussels on 1 and 2 December 1988. Attending the conference were directors and other representatives from Strand A, C and D projects supported under the 1987 Comett rounds.

The purpose of the conference was to examine in depth how the European cooperation being fostered through Comett can provide an added value with complements and goes beyond efforts at individual Member State level. Specifically it was hoped to review developments within Comett, to identify and discuss key issues and consider future developments of the Comett programme — including its extension from 1990 onwards (Comett II).

During the conference the specific themes discussed were:

- (i) European value-added in advanced continuing training;
- (ii) European value-added in multimedia distance training;
- (iii) continuing education and training for high technology;
- (iv) the role of university-enterprise training partnerships (UETPs);
- (v) Comett in relation to SMEs and regional development.

To help delegates prepare and participate fully in the conference two briefing documents were prepared by the Comett Technical Assistance Unit. A base document provided basic statistical information about the Comett programme, with particular emphasis on Strands C and D. It also contained an analysis of certain key themes central to the current and future stages of development of Comett. A key-issues document provided a

framework of key issues to be discussed within parallel working groups.

Introductory presentations were made by:

Mr M. Marin, Vice-President of the Commission of the European Communities,

Mr K. Papanayoutou, Alternate Minister for Industry, Energy and Technology of the Hellenic Republic,

Mr R. Kaplanis, Ministry of Education of the Hellenic Republic,

Mr A. Kirchberger, Comett, Commission of the European Communities,

Mr M. Rogers, Delta, Commission of the European Communities.

These presentations provided a very positive impetus to the conference through their highly supportive contents, which clearly indicated the very real benefits already resulting from the activities supported through Comett. Also encouraging was the clear identification of the value of Comett to the overall development of Community actions within the field of education and training.

What is the European added value?

This section summarizes some of the key points raised by the speakers during the first plenary session of the conference and in the supporting documentation. These issues were then discussed by delegates in parallel working groups.

To be judged fully successful Comett must demonstrate specific benefits of European-level activity. The need for European-level activity may derive from several directions:

- (a) The nature of the topic is such that the potential national audience is insufficient to support the course development.
- (b) The nature of the topic is such that European-level expertise is required to develop the course.
- (c) Less-advanced regions may require access to expertise, knowledge and resources that only exist in other Member States.

The rapid changes in technology and the need to prepare for 1992 and the creation of the internal market give an added urgency to these needs.

There may also be specific economic advantages from a European level of activities:

- (i) Programmes may be centrally developed for dissemination locally, avoiding wasteful duplication of effort.
- (ii) In particular the high capital cost of developing multimedia programmes may only be justified by their use on a European scale.
- (iii) The high cost of certain specialist training resources may only justify their provision for use on a European scale.

¹ Comett (Community programme for education and training in technology) was launched in 1987 to promote university enterprise cooperation in the field of advanced technology training. The next phase of the programme, Comett II, will commence on 1 January 1990 with a budget estimate of ECU 200 million for the period 1990-94.

There may also be other advantages for European-level activities, for example:

- (a) learning in a multinational environment develops a better understanding of other European cultures;
- (b) training in a multinational environment exposes trainers to alternative methods that may be of interest and value in other environments;
- (c) an opportunity to view technology practices in other Member States may assist in the development of technology usage in other situations.

These social-cohesion benefits have a particular value in the creation of the single internal market and the Europe of tomorrow. Against these advantages must be set the additional costs of European cooperation: travel, differences in working practices, aspects of language and culture. It is necessary to select those situations where there is a real net benefit from European cooperation and ensure that the net benefit is achieved.

Comett can exploit this European value-added in a variety of ways:

- (i) the UETP network, in particular, can assist in the identification of skill needs that can best be met by a European response;
- (ii) the UETP network especially can assist in the dissemination of information about programme provision — drawing on a European level of knowledge of what is available in response to local conditions and opportunities;
- (iii) Strand C and D projects can exploit European links to maximize the cost-effectiveness of programme development. Many projects recognize the interoperability that potentially exists for exploiting the outputs of one strand as the input for the other;
- (iv) all projects can form networks or subnetworks to maximize the dissemination and exploitation of the outcomes for Strand C and D projects;

- (v) the particular concern that multimedia programmes require effective (local) support systems offers considerable potential for synergy between projects in exploiting existing education and training mechanisms.

If the potential for European value-added is clear, then Comett must also articulate the actual benefits being achieved. While most projects are still becoming firmly established, the expectations of Comett are such that there is a real need to show the benefits as they emerge. This is particularly true in the context of the discussions concerning Comett II.

There are many other demand-side issues of particular concern to Comett, including:

- (a) the needs of so-called peripheral or less-advanced regions;
- (b) the need to improve the dissemination of results from Community R & D programmes;
- (c) how to meet the needs of disadvantaged groups;
- (d) the particular needs of SMEs.

During the conference particular attention was also given to the practical problems of managing projects on a European scale.

This enabled participants to discuss both strategic and operational issues.

Conference conclusions

The conference provided an opportunity to review the progress of Comett mid-way through its implementation. A wide variety of issues were discussed; some concerned with broad themes at the heart of Comett, others concerned with very practical aspects of running European projects. What was particularly rewarding was the general agreement that through Comett there is being created a value-added to the provision of European-level education and training for technology. Individually as projects and collectively as an infrastructure, Comett is enhancing and extending both the quantity and quality of technology education and training.

Inter-strand links

One important theme underlying the various discussions and conclusions is the importance of developing effective linkages between strands. The UETP network was seen as critical for providing accurate information about the real training needs of enterprises. UETPs also have an important role to play in the delivery of effective solutions to those needs; including fully exploiting the range of training provision now being generated through, in particular, Strands C and D.

The activities of Strand C and D projects are often complementary and there is scope for further cooperation between projects, especially those aimed at the same sector. One of the very positive results of the conference was the creation of additional inter-project contacts for developing future joint actions. The activities of sectorial UETPs is clearly important in enhancing these sectorial initiatives.

Commercialization

A critical issue for projects is the need to achieve effective commercialization of their projects. The marketing and distribution of training programmes is necessary both to ensure maximum take-up by enterprises and to ensure the future survival of project activities. Even for those projects able to operate on a non-commercial basis the techniques of marketing are useful for ensuring widespread availability and use of their project outputs.

However many projects do not traditionally have the necessary marketing skills or may be located in non-commercially oriented organizations. Projects must therefore find ways of acquiring the necessary skills and freedom of actions. The close involvement of enterprises is one obvious source of assistance, but other alternatives may be necessary. Many projects have great expectations that the UETP network will solve their distribution problems for them.

An issue of particular concern to Strand C and D projects is that of copy-

right and intellectual property. Trying to establish multi-institutional transnational agreements can be extremely complex and difficult. There are many differences in the legal statutes of organizations, as well as variations in Member State laws which influence the nature of the arrangements that can be made. Also important is the current uncertainty of the law regarding many of the technology-based material being developed by projects. However, agreement on the issues of copyright and intellectual property is essential if the outcomes of projects are to be properly exploited.

A clear message from project experiences was that resolving these issues at the start of a project operation was more effective than trying to make a development agreement after material had been contracted. The early experience of projects is beginning to generate some standard guidelines which will be of general assistance. The Commission is also seeking to establish a Community

framework to guide legal processes on copyright law.

Preparing for Comett II

The conference was held two weeks before the Council meeting of 16 December at which the Comett II proposals were to be discussed. Delegates were therefore keen to discuss the likely development of Comett II; in particular how the achievements of Comett I could be used to best advantage. A critical concern is to identify those achievements in Comett I that would provide a sound basis for launching actions under Comett II. With over 1 000 projects directly involving an estimated 5 000 different organizations, there is a very solid base of activity and structures to build on.

The UETP network was recognized as providing a European infrastructure. While the existing pattern of coverage will need to be developed it nevertheless provides a solid framework around

which to build future activities. The existing Strand C and D projects are developing an initial range of programmes for meeting enterprise training needs. The projects are also proving themselves as centres of expertise for developing future programmes. The scope for creating stronger sectorial initiatives is an opportunity that will be exploited in the remainder of Comett I, as well as in Comett II.

Conclusion

The conference firmly endorsed that Comett was providing a European value-added to the provision of education and training for technology. The delegates were able to exchange practical experiences on the implementation of their Comett projects as well as contributing to the wider development of Comett in both its current phase and in Comett II.

Additional information about the Comett programme is available from: Comett Technical Assistance Unit, 71 Avenue de Cortenbergh, B-1040 Brussels.

Health and security

Actions and guidelines

Advisory Committee on Safety, Hygiene and Health Protection at Work

An increasingly important role

I — Introduction

The adoption of the Single European Act has led to a considerable intensification of the work of the Commission departments with responsibility for the protection of the physical and mental health of workers and, consequently, to an expansion of the machinery for the preparation of the relevant measures.

In this connection the Advisory Committee on Safety, Hygiene and Health Protection at Work¹ has been regularly consulted in response to Commission initiatives, while its role, stressed at Commission, Council and Parliament level during discussions of action programmes, has become considerably more important, particularly since the implementation in the form of directives of Article 118a of the Single Act.

This change of pace and the strengthening of the Committee's role need to be looked at against their historical background.

II — Presentation of the Committee

Three factors led the Commission to propose the setting-up of such a Committee:

First, the recognition that the profound transformation in production methods in all sectors of the economy and the spread of new technologies and the use of dangerous substances are creating new problems as regards protection of the health and safety of workers. Secondly, the fact that protection against occupational accidents and diseases as well as occupational hygiene are among the objectives of the EEC Treaty and, lastly, the Council Regulation of 21 January 1974,² concerning a social action programme providing for improvements in safety and health conditions at work.

In the light of these factors, the Commission decided it was necessary to set up a permanent body to assist it in preparing and implementing activities in this field.

Created by the Council Decision of 27 June 1974,¹ the Advisory Committee on Safety, Hygiene and Health Protection at Work represents the response to this need, its purpose being to facilitate co-operation between national administrations, trade unions and employers' organizations.

It has responsibility for all sectors of the economy except the industries covered by the ECSC Treaty, which provides for coordination with the Mines Safety and Health Commission, and the industries covered by the EAEC Treaty (Euratom) as regards the dangers arising from ionizing radiation.

The Committee consists of 72 full members, there being for each Member State two government representatives, two trade-union representatives and two representatives of employers' organizations.

On the basis of government proposals, these members are appointed for a three-year term by the Council, which endeavours to ensure a balanced repre-

sentation of the various economic sectors concerned.

The Committee is chaired by the Commissioner responsible for the Directorate-General for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs (DG V). Since 1 January 1989, Ms Vasso Papandreou has held this post.

The secretarial services for the Committee are provided by the Health and Safety Directorate of DG V.

The Committee is responsible, in particular, for:

- (a) conducting, on the basis of information available to it, exchanges of views and experience regarding existing or planned regulations;
- (b) contributing towards the development of a common approach to problems existing in the fields of safety, hygiene and health protection at work and towards the choice of Community priorities as well as measures necessary for implementing them;
- (c) drawing the Commission's attention to areas in which there is an apparent need for the acquisition of new knowledge and for the implementation of appropriate educational and research projects;
- (d) defining, within the framework of Community action programmes, and in cooperation with the Mines Safety and Health Commission:
 - (i) the criteria and aims of the campaign against the risk of accidents at work and health hazards within the undertaking;
 - (ii) methods enabling undertakings and their employees to evaluate and to improve the level of protection;
- (e) contributing towards keeping national administrations, trade unions and employers' organizations informed of Community measures in

¹ OJ L 185, 9. 7. 1974

² OJ C 13, 12. 2. 1974

order to facilitate their cooperation and to encourage initiatives promoted by them aiming at exchanges of experience and at laying down codes of practice;

- (f) submitting opinions on proposals for directives and on all measures proposed by the Commission which are of relevance to health and safety at work.

In order to accomplish these tasks, which necessitate recourse to a variety of disciplines ranging from industrial medicine to toxicology, ergonomics and engineering techniques, the Committee may obtain assistance from the requisite experts and set up appropriate working parties.

After careful consideration of the nature of its tasks, the Committee has now adopted a structure based on three interest groups, namely workers, employers, and government representatives, and a number of *ad hoc* groups. The resulting structure is fully integrated into Commission initiatives.

Finally, an organization group, comprising three representatives from each of the interest groups, coordinates the Committee's work in conjunction with the Chairmen of the *ad hoc* groups.

Every year, the Committee prepares a progress report¹ which the Commission forwards to the Council, the Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the ECSC Consultative Committee.

III — 1974-85: The first and second Commission action programmes and the first Directives

From the outset, the Advisory Committee on Safety, Hygiene and Health Protection at Work asked to be informed in good time of any Commission initiative concerning health and safety at work so that it could respond effectively.

It immediately set up three working parties and, in 1977, examined the draft directives on vinyl chloride monomer,² the classification, packaging and labelling of dangerous substances,³ the monitoring of certain industrial activities in respect of accident hazards, and the harmonization of the legal and administrative regulations of the Member States on the provision of safety information at the workplace.⁴

At around the same time the Committee played a major role in drawing up the first action programme of the European Communities on safety and health at work,⁵ covering the period 1978-82. For the first time in this field, the Commission, with the agreement of both sides of industry, initiated a four-year co-ordinated action programme.

This programme focused principally on the causes of occupational accidents and diseases, protection against dangerous substances, prevention of the hazards and harmful effects associated with machinery and the improvement of human behaviour.

In 1978, the Committee delivered its opinion on draft Directives concerning machine-tools and similar machines for the working of wood and other materials,⁶ hand-held, power-driven, portable grinding machines,⁶ and the amendment

of Directive 73/173/EEC concerning the classification, packaging and labelling of dangerous preparations.⁷

In 1979, it was involved in the drafting of Directives on asbestos,⁸ safety signs,⁹ tower cranes,¹⁰ the approximation of the laws of the Member States relating to roll-over protective structures (rops) and to falling-object protective structures (fops),¹¹ and the noise emission of construction plant and equipment.¹²

In 1981 it delivered an opinion on the draft Directive on microwave radiation.¹³

In 1982, it delivered an opinion on the draft Directive on dangerous agents and processes and, in the light of the execution of the first action programme, which it criticized, the Committee actively participated in the preparation of the second action programme,¹⁴ which was intended to follow on from the first.

This second programme continued the measures begun under the first programme and dealt with such new aspects as training, information, statistics and research, and cooperation with other international bodies such as the ILO and the WHO.

In 1983, the Committee delivered an opinion on the harmonization of exposure limits and biological, medical and workplace monitoring⁵ and, in 1984, under the second action programme, it helped to draft Directives on benzene, the safety of fishing vessels and a toxicology action programme.

¹ Available from the Committee Secretariat, Office C4/78, Jean Monnet Building, rue Alcide De Gasperi, L-2920 Luxembourg; Tel. 4301-2345/2802

² OJ C 291, 10. 12. 1976

³ OJ C 260, 5. 11. 1976

⁴ OJ C 96, 29. 4. 1976

⁵ OJ C 165, 11. 7. 1978

⁶ OJ C 23, 27. 1. 1978

⁷ OJ C 25, 31. 1. 1978

⁸ OJ C 78, 28. 3. 1980

⁹ OJ L 183, 19. 7. 1979

¹⁰ OJ C 25, 29. 1. 1979

¹¹ OJ C 104, 28. 4. 1980

¹² OJ C 300, 1. 12. 1979

¹³ OJ C 249, 28. 9. 1980

¹⁴ OJ C 308, 25. 11. 1982

When, in 1985, the Committee learned of the work of the Commission and the Council concerning the completion of the single market,¹ it deplored the fact that it had not been consulted and given the opportunity for an exchange of views at the preparatory stage.

The Committee subscribed to the view that there were still many obstacles to the free movement of goods and services, particularly technical barriers arising from differences in national legislation. It welcomed the initiative taken by the Committee and the Council, described as a 'new approach to technical harmonization and standardization' which was designed to eliminate these obstacles and create a more dynamic environment for industry and employment in Europe.

The Committee pointed out however that this new approach created a number of problems, mostly the need to clarify the concept of essential health and safety requirements contained in the Council Resolution of 7 May 1985 and to establish whether these requirements also covered the use of equipment at work.

It stressed the link between these matters and the preparation of technical specifications in the form of standards and, in this connection, was concerned to ensure that the elimination of barriers to trade would not lead to an impairment of worker protection standards.

IV — The period since 1986: An increasingly important role

The implementation of the second action programme and the political stimulus provided by the White Paper led to a considerable increase in the Advisory Committee's work in 1986, resulting from the intensification of Commission activities during the execution of the second action programme on health and safety at work.

Consequently, the marked reduction in the Committee's activities which had been apparent for some years was reversed (see under (d)).

(a) Wider responsibilities

In the light of Chernobyl and other incidents at nuclear-power stations, the Committee examined the advisability of assuming responsibility for the protection of workers' health against the dangers of ionizing radiation.

The problem was that the terms of reference laid down for the Committee in the Council Decision² covered all sectors of the economy with the exception of the mineral-extracting industries and the health protection of workers against the dangers arising from ionizing radiation.

Although the Euratom Treaty provides for consultation of the Economic and Social Committee on this last-mentioned topic, it does not require consultation of the two sides of industry in preparing Community measures and drafting proposals for the Council.

When consulted on the possible extension of its activities to include nuclear safety, the Committee signified its approval in its communication to the Council of 20 August 1986 on the development of Community measures designed to implement Chapter III of the Euratom Treaty, 'Health and Safety',³ the Commission proposed an amendment to the Decision setting up the Advisory Committee, with a view to including radiation protection in its terms of reference. This Commission initiative confirmed that the Committee had proved an effective instrument in the preparation of texts on the health and safety of workers.

(b) The Single European Act and its consequences

In the course of 1986 the Community institutions drew up what is now known as the Single European Act, which amends the EEC Treaty of 25 March 1957 by providing for the necessary measures to accelerate implementation

of policies aimed at greater economic and monetary union within the Community.

According to the Single Act, certain decisions will henceforth be taken by a qualified majority rather than by a unanimous vote, with a view to making more rapid progress towards the completion of the large internal market by 1992.⁴

This is the case with regard to the problems associated with the health and safety of workers, as mentioned in Article 118a of the Single Act:

'Member States shall pay particular attention to encouraging improvements, especially in the working environment, as regards the health and safety of workers, and shall set as their objective the harmonization of conditions in this area, while maintaining the improvements made.

In order to help achieve the objective laid down in the first paragraph, the Council, acting by a qualified majority on a proposal from the Commission, in co-operation with the European Parliament and after consulting the Economic and Social Committee, shall adopt, by means of directives, minimum requirements for gradual implementation, having regard to the conditions and technical rules obtaining in each of the Member States.

Such directives shall avoid imposing administrative, financial and legal constraints in a way which would hold back the creation and development of small and medium-sized undertakings.

The provisions adopted pursuant to this Article shall not prevent any Member State from maintaining or introducing more stringent measures for the protection of working conditions compatible with this Treaty'.

¹ White Paper: Completing the internal market, COM(85) 310 final of 14 June 1985.

² OJ L 185, 9. 7. 1974

³ COM (86) 434 final

⁴ See 10th Progress Report of the Committee, Point IV (c).

The Advisory Committee sees in this text a clearly stated desire to assume responsibility for the health and safety of workers. It stresses the fundamental progress made in the decision-making process by reference to the implications of Article 118a for what is known as the co-operation procedure:

The assignment to the Council of responsibility for laying down minimum requirements in directives was to prove a major event in the life of the Committee.

(c) The implementation of Article 118a

The year 1987 saw an intensification of the Committee's activities as a result of the impetus provided by the Single Act, which entered into force on 1 July and, more specifically, the implementation of Article 118a. In fact, as soon as the Single Act came into force, the Commission prepared a communication on its programme concerning safety, hygiene and health at work¹ in order to demonstrate its desire to make rapid use of the complete range of resources made available by this new legal instrument so as to give greater emphasis to the social dimension in the completion of the internal market. The Commission departments concerned and the Committee, which cooperated closely on this task, drew up the third action programme and proposed that efforts be concentrated chiefly on the following six subjects:

- (i) safety and ergonomics at work,
- (ii) occupational health and hygiene,
- (iii) the development of information,
- (iv) the organization of training,
- (v) small and medium-sized enterprises,
- (vi) social dialogue.

As regards this last point, the Commission recognized that the Committee 'provides a highly appropriate forum for consultation between the two sides of industry. This Committee must play fully its part in assisting the Commission in defining the action it will take in this field' and that 'the Commission will continue

to consult the Committee on the proposals which it intends to present to the Council'.

This affirmation of the political role of the Committee was confirmed when, on the basis of the abovementioned communication, the Council adopted a Resolution on safety, hygiene and health at work². It is significant that this Resolution, on two occasions, explicitly states the Council's desire to involve the Committee in the preparation of Commission work, plans and directives.

These developments were clearly of crucial importance in view of the in-depth discussions which they provoked and their consequences for the Committee's working methods.

Notwithstanding the extremely short time available, the Committee carried out a methodical analysis of the substance of the Commission's communication and delivered a joint opinion accompanied by individual comments from each interest group.³

In preparing this opinion, the Committee provided proof, under difficult circumstances, of its ability to respond promptly to Commission initiatives and justified its role as a highly appropriate forum for social dialogue assigned to it by the Commission communication and the Council Resolution.

During this consultation, the Committee's working methods were reconsidered and clarified. It was established that the Committee must examine all proposals emanating from the various Commission departments and relating to the health and safety of workers.

The question of the widening of responsibility to cover aspects of the Euratom Treaty was referred to the Working Party on Social Questions on 22 June 1987 and to Coreper on 3 November 1987. The final decision rests with the Council, to which the matter has not yet been referred.

Finally, in 1988, the consequences of the implementation of Article 118a⁴ and of the subsequent action programme and Council Resolution⁵ continued to have a considerable effect on the Com-

mittee's work. With 40 meetings spread over 60 days, the Committee and its *ad hoc* groups were more active than at any time in the past (see under (d)).

On a political level, the Committee continued to play an important role, specifically in the Commission's initiatives aimed at defining the social dimension of the internal market, and, more particularly, in one of the five main areas covered, i.e. encouraging improvements in living and working conditions.

It made a decisive contribution in preparing the first set of Commission proposals based on Article 118a, which consisted of a proposal for a framework directive⁶ and five proposals for specific directives on:

- (i) personal protective equipment at the workplace⁷
- (ii) safety and health requirements for the workplace⁸
- (iii) machines, equipment and installations⁹
- (iv) visual-display units¹⁰
- (v) handling of heavy loads.

The *ad hoc* groups monitored the preparation of these directives by the Commission and delivered its opinion on them. In so doing the Committee met the Commission's needs despite the organizational problems associated with this work programme, and also fulfilled its advisory role.

It should also be stressed that the contributions of each interest group on all of these subjects demonstrated a constant willingness to take account of the creation of the large internal market in 1992.

¹ OJ C 28, 3. 2. 1988, p. 3

² OJ C 28, 3. 2. 1988, p. 1

³ See Minutes of the 21st plenary meeting (Doc. V/LUX/7639/67)

⁴ See 11th Progress Report, Section IV (c)

⁵ OJ C 28, 3. 2. 1988

⁶ OJ L 183, 29. 6. 1989, p. 1

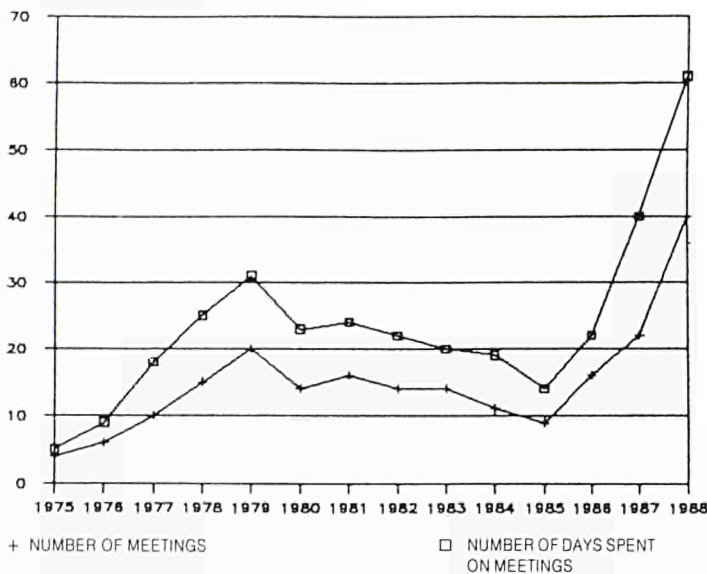
⁷ OJ C 115, 8. 5. 1989, p. 27

⁸ OJ C 115, 8. 5. 1989, p. 34

⁹ OJ C 106, 26. 4. 1989, p. 13

¹⁰ OJ C 130, 26. 5. 1989, p. 5

(d) Meetings (1975-88) Period: 1975-88



V — An additional dimension: Standardization

(a) The problem

We have seen how, in 1985, the Committee came to examine the Commission White Paper¹ and the problems posed by the new approach to technical harmonization and standardization with a view to the completion of the large internal market by 1992. The Council Resolution of 7 May 1985 states that this new approach is based on a number of fundamental principles, the first of which specifies that 'legislative harmonization is limited to the adoption, by means of Directives based on Article 100 of the EEC Treaty, of the essential safety requirements with which products put on the market must conform'.²

The same text entrusts the task of drawing up technical specifications for the production and placing on the market of products conforming to the essential requirements established by the Directives to organizations competent in the standardization area.

The technical specifications are not mandatory and maintain their status of voluntary standards but, at the same time, national authorities are obliged to recognize that products manufactured in conformity with harmonized standards (or, provisionally, with national standards) are presumed to conform to the essential requirements established by the Directive.

Finally, the quality of harmonized standards must be ensured by standardization mandates, conferred by the Commission.

In following the system of legislative harmonization, the Commission intends to be able to halt the proliferation of excessively technical directives. The scope of directives addording to the general reference to standards formula should encompass wide product categories and types of risk.

The countries that are most advanced in these areas have tackled the problems of standards in advance by setting up systems involving specific technical standards and regulations based on health and safety criteria. This approach essentially means that both products and the working environment

must satisfy specific design and planning requirements.

In the case of products, this implies standards relating to the conditions governing entry into service and use while, in the case of the working environment, quality standards, limit values and methods of measurement are involved.³

(b) Reactions

The European Trade Union Confederation voiced three major criticisms of the new approach and on the following procedure: Directive — Commission mandate to the standardization bodies — standards. First, it considered the content of the essential requirements to be imprecise; secondly, the complete freedom allowed to manufacturers in deciding whether to affix the Community mark to products seemed to invite abuse; lastly, it felt that the lack of involvement of labour and management in the definition of standards for the health and safety of workers could have a detrimental effect.

Within the Committee, the workers' group noted a double imbalance with regard to the world of work. Standardization had traditionally been the task of industrialists (manufacturers and consumers) and the new approach directives which had been or would be adopted by the Council imposed major obligations on the Member States as regards guarantees of freedom of movement. These guarantees are an essential element in completing the internal market and, consequently, the group was anxious for this arrangement to take account of the obligations relating to the health and safety of workers, and wished to be consulted from the beginning when directives were being drawn up.

¹ White Paper: Completing the internal market, COM(85)310 final of 14 June 1985.

² OJ C 136, 4. 6. 1985, p. 2 (Annex II, paragraph 1).

³ Sapir, M. 'L'intervention des interlocuteurs sociaux dans la normalisation européenne'.

In a common position adopted on 21 December 1988 concerning the machines directive, the Council stated that the legislative framework should be improved with a view to ensuring an effective and appropriate contribution to the standardization process by employers and employees.

Replying to proposals for amendments in a European Parliament debate, Lord Cockfield, Vice-President of the Commission, stated the latter's position as regards the consultation of workers', employers' and inspection-body representatives on the standardization of working conditions:

'The Commission accepts the need for such consultation and has taken significant and important steps to set up the necessary procedures. Thus, they have already informed the European Trade Union Confederation that the Commission accepts the need to involve workers' representatives in the evaluation of standardization work at three stages.

First of all, the drawing up of standardization programmes and mandates. Second, technical work in standardization bodies, and thirdly, the examination of draft European standards submitted to public enquiry. The Commission accepts that the Advisory Committee on Safety, Hygiene and Health Protection at Work is the appropriate framework for such consultation. The Commission will be presenting its views on practical arrangements for these consultations... with a view to final agreement on these arrangements.

The aims of these amendments can therefore be attained through the existing procedures and structures which I have just described. This would have the advantage that it would not upset the institutional balance which has been achieved through the new approach between legislative authorities and the standardization bodies whose deadlines and procedures must be respected. We can, and I am prepared to give an undertaking on this point, pursue these matters further to ensure that the arrangements for consultation are fully adequate.¹

In its memorandum on 'Trade unions and the preparation of European standards', CEN/Cenelec recommends that trade unions should participate in the implementation and planning of standardization programmes by joining national delegations. It also recommends that the explanation of technical problems and the provision of information on standardization procedures should be the responsibility of its member Committees.

This proposal did not allay the fears of the unions which, with a view to closely monitoring the technical activities of the standardization bodies, set up the European Trade Union Technical Bureau of Health and Safety in February 1989. One of the objectives of this Bureau is to undertake studies and to provide information relating specifically to European harmonization and standardization activities in the field of health and safety at work in conjunction with a standardization group to be set up within the framework of the Advisory Committee.

(c) Organization of Committee consultation

Aware of the increasingly important role of standardization in the practical attainment of European integration in industry and in markets, and in accordance with the principles laid down when it was created, the Committee wishes to be involved in the monitoring of standardization work.²

With this in view, the Committee studied ways of adapting its structures and pace of work and, at its plenary meeting in March 1989, unanimously adopted an opinion defining the extent of its involvement in European standardization work.²

This opinion makes clear that the Committee distinguishes two types of intervention based respectively on Articles 100a and 118a of the Single Act. In the former case, the Committee considers that, if the Commission intends to define standards for the purpose of implementing directives, the standardization mandate should be returned to the Commit-

tee for examination and, where appropriate, definition of priorities for standardization activity. As regards activities under Article 118a, the Committee considers that the procedure adopted with reference to Article 100a can be applied for the purposes of establishing standardized reference measurement methods for various physical, chemical and biological agents.

In order to facilitate the implementation of these measures, the Committee set up a standardization group alongside the organization group (see Section II) with the task of organizing information and work in this field.

VI — Conclusions

(a) A role in promoting social dialogue

We have seen how the Committee has a tripartite structure and how each of the parties, organized in the form of an interest group, is required to comment on Commission proposals in this capacity.

In this connection, it should be pointed out that this distribution of roles does not reflect the existence of a homogeneous 'doctrine' within each group. The Council appoints the members on the recommendation of the Member States, and the limited number of representatives (six) from each country makes it impossible for the total spectrum of social and professional interests to be represented.

It was for this reason that the workers' group chose as its spokesman a representative of the European Trade Union Confederation, which represents the great majority of workers' organizations, with a view to facilitating coordination between the members of different unions.

¹ Report of proceedings of the European Parliament, 15 and 16 November 1988.

² Doc. 5326 of 3.3.1989: 'The role of the Advisory Committee in European standardization work'.

In the employers' group, the spokesman varies depending on the matters in hand.

In both cases, the presentation of coherent and constructive opinions largely depends on the skill of the coordinators acting within the framework of their respective interest groups.

The governments' group is coordinated in accordance with a system based on the Council Presidency and consequently involves rotation every six months. Whilst the representatives of the national administrations have no formal mandate from their governments, their contribution is distinguished by a desire for realism and social progress.

Although the Committee is constantly seeking to achieve a consensus, unanimity often proves impossible on certain points. The Committee then adopts a common position covering all the points on which there is general agreement, supplemented by opinions enabling each of the interest groups to present their particular point of view.

Thus, the Committee's composition, internal organization and working methods provide a relatively satisfactory response to the need for in-depth consultation of both sides of industry from the start of work on texts concerning the health protection and safety of workers.

This role is of fundamental importance in a field where technical complexity and social and professional awareness are closely interwoven.

(b) A political function

The impact of Article 118a of the Single Act on the Committee's work has already been described.

In this connection, it should be stressed that, in the context of the social dimension to the completion of the single market, the problems concerning the health and safety of workers have led to a political consensus concerning the need for a number of significant measures.

This is reflected in the strong involvement of the three interest groups in the

examination of Commission texts and the constant search for solutions acceptable to all.

It would be fair to say that what was previously a platform for passing dogmatic judgements on Commission proposals has gradually become a kind of active element in the drafting of texts at the scientific, technical and political levels, which is essential for subsequent work under the cooperation procedure.

Here, reference should be made to the role of the Director-General for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs, who, when it was necessary to seize the opportunities offered by Article 118a for the submission of concrete proposals for an action programme, did not hesitate to increase the pace of work to unprecedented levels in order to ensure that the Committee was closely involved in guiding the work of the Commission in this area until 1992.

As a result of this cooperation, the texts submitted to the Council already bear the mark of both sides of industry and, consequently, eliminate certain difficulties which could arise during subsequent discussions involving the Council Working Party on Social Affairs, Coreper, and even the European Parliament.

This role of adjusting texts and bringing them into line with political sensitivities is also a function of great interest to the Commission.

(c) A role in ensuring mutual information

At another level, attention should be drawn to the importance of information flow in what has been described as a highly appropriate forum for consultation between the two sides of industry.

The Commission passes information to workers and employers who are thereby made aware of its initiatives and are in a position to intervene at the most appropriate time.

In turn, they provide information enabling the Commission to gauge the social climate with regard to occupational

health and safety, identify developments and new interests as they emerge and reorientate its activities accordingly.

Information also passes between workers and employers and between the Member States. This allows the representatives to be kept permanently informed of the latest national developments in any field.

(d) A role in identifying problems and initiating action

Another positive aspect of the Committee's role is its ability to act on its own initiative to examine problems which have not yet been the subject of a Commission report and, in so doing, to enlarge the latter's field of action.

This power of initiative, based on the expert status of Committee members, enables topics meriting attention to be identified and ranked according to their importance.

(e) Conclusions

A general observation seems called for: in circumstances as exceptional as those associated with the implementation of Article 118a of the Single Act, the Committee has demonstrated its ability to respond rapidly to Commission initiatives and has justified its role as a privileged forum for social dialogue assigned to it in the Commission communication and the Council Resolution.

Furthermore, the Committee's new obligation to comment on all Commission proposals concerning the health and safety of workers has necessitated an adjustment of its structure and an increase in its pace of work.

This raises the question of how the Committee's influence is to be assessed since this is exercised on a case-by-case basis as each text is proposed by the Commission. Neither is it easy to assess the following: the diffuse and constant influence of the flow of information between the Committee departments and the Committee members, which en-

sures that all concerned remain in touch with one another; the effect of ongoing discussions between both sides of industry on subjects of a highly technical nature, which are reflected in the texts as drawn up by the relevant departments; the value of this *ex-ante* consultation prompted by Commission initiatives.

By way of reply, reference should be made, firstly, to the deep involvement of every individual member of the Commit-

tee, secondly, to the sense of responsibility and desire for consensus shown by the interest groups and, finally, to the constant effort to achieve improvements which characterizes the Committee's overall approach.

Nevertheless, the most encouraging reply is provided by the number and quality of the directives submitted by the Commission and adopted by Parliament and the Council within the framework of

Article 118a, which underlines the conclusions reached at the European Council in Madrid (26 and 27 June 1989), whereby the latter 'notes with satisfaction that the objectives of Article 118a are in the process of being achieved through the adoption of major directives concerning the health and safety of workers which lead to an improvement in the quality of life at work'.

Yves Morettini

Aids and drugs

Community action against two dangers to public health

At its meeting on 16 May 1989, the Council (Ministers for Health) adopted a number of official positions on public-health matters. AIDS and drugs were high on the agenda, giving rise to five conclusions and one Resolution.

Firstly, a new approach should be adopted to AIDS as regards both epidemiological information and prevention.

Secondly, since the link between drugs and AIDS is causing the public health authorities increasing concern, there is a need for specific action.

Lastly, the fight against drugs highlights the need for a European health-data network and the evaluation of illegal drug analyses.

I — A new approach to AIDS

This involves improved epidemiological data-collection at European level, together with a strengthening of preventive measures including efforts to increase awareness among health workers.

A — An improved general system for collecting epidemiological data

In its conclusions, the Council expresses concern regarding the quality and comparability of the epidemiological data available in the Member States. This concern has been revived by the application since 1 January 1988 of the most recent WHO definition of AIDS.

The Commission is therefore requested, in conjunction with the WHO Centre in Paris, to:

- (i) assess the impact of the application of the new definition of AIDS on the quantification of cases;
- (ii) compare notification procedures with a view to the improvement of the comprehensiveness of the system, and the reliability and comparability of the data used;
- (iii) propose appropriate means and methods for the attainment of this improvement and for the exchange of data on infection by the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV).

B — A strengthening of preventive measures

The first step will be to promote awareness among health workers and, subsequently, to coordinate activities for the prevention and control of AIDS. These two aspects are the subject of two of the abovementioned Council conclusions.

As regards promoting awareness among health workers, the Council noted the crucial role of behaviour to-

wards HIV carriers and AIDS patients, and the low, virtually non-existent, risk of infection if the appropriate protective measures are taken.

The Member States are therefore invited to:

- (i) encourage health workers to adopt the behaviour appropriate to any infectious disease in order to avoid any stigmatizing of, or discrimination against, HIV carriers or AIDS sufferers;
- (ii) introduce, for this purpose, the measures necessary to ensure the dissemination of technical information and, where appropriate, the availability of psycho-social assistance.

As regards future activities for preventing and controlling the spread of AIDS, the Council conclusions call upon the Commission, in particular, to examine in the context of the internal market:

- (a) the opportunities for technical harmonization in order to ensure the necessary quality of condoms available in the Member States, and to submit a suitable proposal to the Council; and
- (b) the opportunities for harmonizing technical requirements and for limiting the availability of kits for the spot diagnosis of HIV infection, and to submit a suitable proposal to the Council.

Furthermore, the Council's *ad hoc* AIDS group, with the close cooperation and participation of the Commission, was asked to promote the exchange of information on national prevention campaigns and to examine ways of improving the HIV immunity of organs, tissue, sperm and blood at Community level.

II — Drugs and AIDS

Concern regarding the spread of the AIDS virus among intravenous drug-users derives from recognition of the

alarming situation within the Community, necessitating the establishment of preconditions for action at this level.

The main lines of a preventive policy may consequently be defined as follows: health education, treatment for addiction, availability of safe injection equipment, provision of condoms, coordination of monitoring programmes for pregnant addicts, diagnosis of HIV infection, special arrangements for prisons.

A — An alarming situation and preconditions for action

In all the Member States, the sharpest increase in the number of AIDS cases has been among intravenous drug-users. Epidemiological data also show this group to be the most affected by HIV infection in certain Member States.

Evaluation of the various action programmes implemented could provide a basis for the preparation of subsequent measures.

In this context, the Council meeting of 16 May defined the preconditions for such action as follows:

- (i) a distinction between the final (ending drug use) and intermediate objectives (reducing mortality);
- (ii) the need for international coordination;
- (iii) recognition of special social characteristics;
- (iv) creation of the necessary awareness of the risk of infection among addicts;
- (v) involvement of all the parties concerned at both social and professional levels.

B — The main lines of a preventive policy

Health education is the first priority, necessitating the identification of specific target groups (such as prostitutes

and prisoners). Health workers must be sufficiently well-informed if their advice is not to be rejected.

Programmes for treating drug addiction and any alternative approaches permitted by national legislation may be promoted. The encouragement of consumption habits that do not entail a risk of HIV infection could also be considered.

Safe injection equipment could be made available in several ways, for example by issuing needles and syringes on prescription, exchange programmes, and the distribution of free disinfectants. Whichever option is chosen, health and social assistance remain vital.

The coordination of monitoring programmes for pregnant addicts should be encouraged. Such programmes provide information and advice on infection, the foetus and the newborn baby; they should also take account of high-risk pregnancies.

Appropriate resources, especially economic, should be allocated for the diagnosis of HIV carriers with a view to better access and care. Voluntary testing and confidentiality remain more necessary than ever.

The special case of prisons should be taken into account when drawing up preventive and assistance programmes and due attention paid to the social and legal conditions peculiar to this environment.

At its meeting on 16 May 1989, the Council invited the Commission in the further course of activities to draw up and submit to it before the end of 1989 a programme in this field providing in particular for the promotion and funding of expert meetings and other initiatives with a view to the exchange of national experience based on an evaluation of the different strategies and implementing procedures adopted, taking into account the activities of other organizations such as the WHO and the Council of Europe.

III — The fight against drugs

At the abovementioned meeting, the Council reaffirmed its commitment to action in this field on the basis of the following two initiatives:

- (i) a Resolution on the creation of a European health-data network relating to drug addiction;
- (ii) conclusions on the reliability of body-fluid analysis as a means of detecting illegal drugs.

A — A European data network

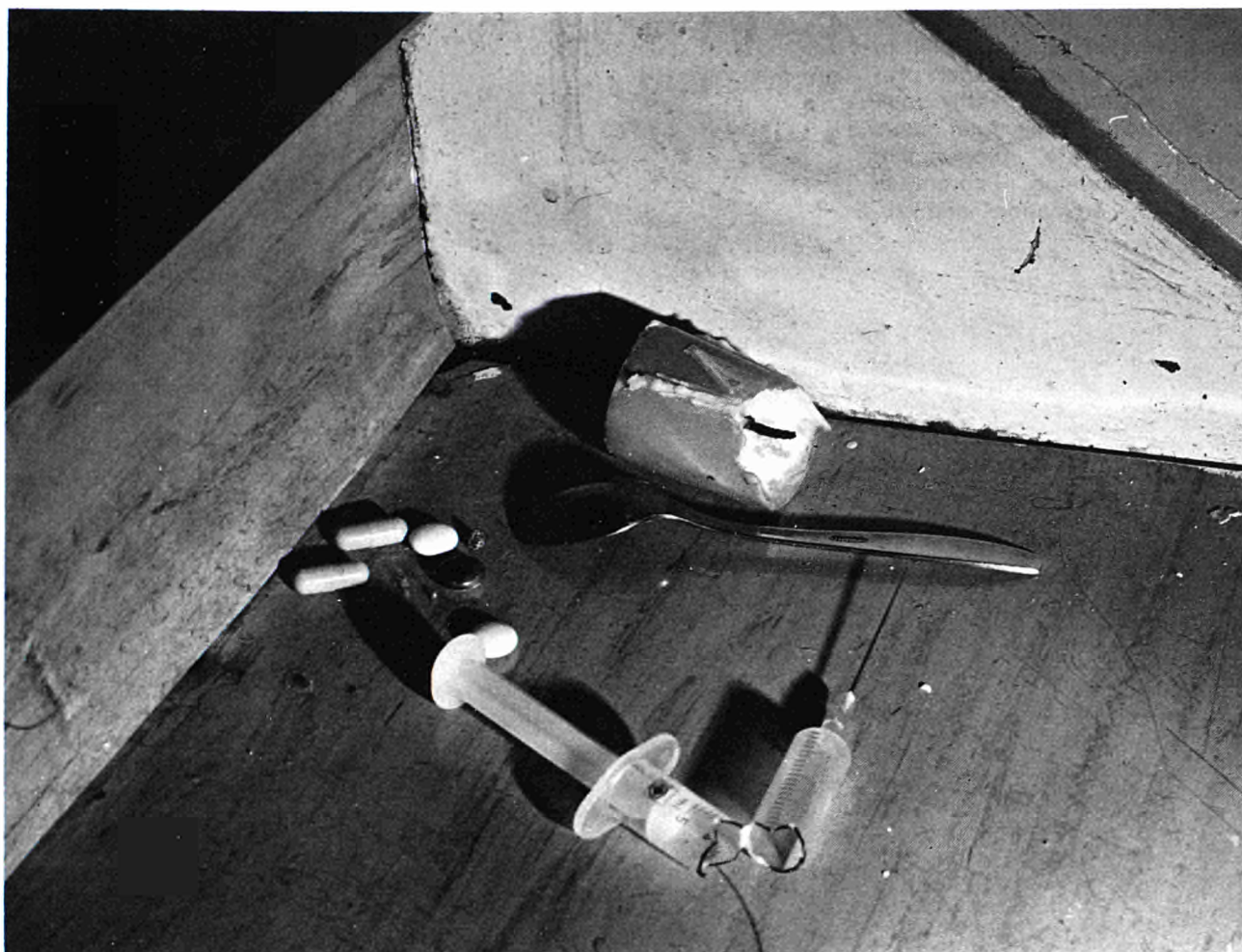
In its statement, the Council stresses the heterogeneous nature of information gathering and the difficulty of making comparisons. Anxious to avoid duplicating the activities of the Pompidou Group or the WHO, it draws attention to the 1993 target date and the changes this will bring, and emphasizes the importance of the creation of a common core of data.

On this basis, the Commission is requested to:

- (a) draw up a complete inventory of studies already undertaken or planned both by the Member States and such international bodies as the Council of Europe or the WHO;
- (b) identify those fields where further action is necessary;
- (c) submit a report to the Council indicating any appropriate initiatives.

B — The reliability of illegal drug analysis

The concern of the health authorities derives from the increased number of urine tests now being carried out in the Member States in an attempt to detect the presence of illegal drugs. Certain difficulties are stressed: reliable reference materials are sometimes lacking and are expensive to produce; confirmation analysis methods may exhibit consider-



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able differences as regards specificity and sensitivity; there is a risk of mistaken positive results; the commercial goals of an increasing number of laboratories are not always compatible with quality.

The Commission is therefore invited to examine:

- (a) the conditions, objectives and frequency of illegal drugs tests on urine samples;
- (b) the consequences, for those tested, of a positive result;
- (c) the compatibility of these tests and confirmation analyses and their consequences in the context of the new conditions which will apply with the completion of the single market.

In the light of the results obtained, the Commission is invited to consider whether it is necessary or desirable to:

- (i) examine the present criteria for notifying positive results, particularly the need to distinguish between detection and confirmation;
- (ii) study existing quality assurance programmes;
- (iii) check whether certified reference materials are available for illegal drugs and metabolites.

The Commission is also asked to transmit a report on these studies to the Council.

Conclusion

The Commission's help has been expressly requested in connection with various public-health matters of pressing importance.

The extent of the task assigned to it should not be underestimated. It provides clear confirmation that the European Community is ready to take prompt action against dangers threatening the health and life of its citizens.

A. Berlin
H. Petit

Europe against cancer programme

Progress at 30 September 1989

In 1988 and 1989 implementation of the 1987-89 action plan of the Europe against cancer programme has been generally positive in each of the four areas covered by the programme: prevention, training, information and health education and research.¹

I — Prevention and screening

A — Campaign against smoking

1. Two new Community draft documents have completed the set of initiatives launched in 1987:

In December 1988 the Commission adopted a draft recommendation to ban smoking in public places. The Council and the Ministers for Health meeting within the Council adopted a resolution on this subject on 16 May 1989.

In March 1989, the Commission adopted and sent to the Council a proposal for a Council Directive on limiting advertising for tobacco products in the press and by means of bills and posters.²

2. As far as the preceding Community initiatives are concerned, one might note that the European Parliament has adopted in December 1988 its opinion on the proposal for a directive concerning the labelling of tobacco products. On the basis of this opinion, the European Commission adopted in December 1988 a modified proposal,³ which enabled the Council to adopt a common position in May 1989.

3. The colloquium on the prevention of smoking, which was organized in Madrid in November 1988 by the European Commission, the WHO and the Spanish Health Ministry, has resulted in the publication of eight reports available on request. Other studies have also been launched in 1988 and 1989. As regards the proposal for a Directive on the maximum tar yield of cigarettes, it was the subject of a Parliamentary opinion adopted in May 1989 which should enable the Council to adopt a common position in the second half of 1989.

B — Fight against occupational cancers

1. The Council Directive on the protection of workers by the banning of certain

specified agents and/or certain work activities (Fourth individual Directive within the meaning of Article 8 of Directive 80/1107/EEC) was adopted by the Council on 9 June 1988.⁴ This Directive deals with four substances causing bladder cancers (2-naphtylamine, 4-aminobiphenyl, benzidine, 4-nitrodyphenyl).

2. Proposal for a Council Directive on the protection of workers from the risks related to exposure to carcinogens at work (Sixth individual Directive within the meaning of Article 8 of Directive 80/1107/EEC): the Economic and Social Committee delivered its opinion on 2 June 1988⁵ and Parliament delivered its opinion in May 1989, which will enable the Council to adopt a common position in the second half of 1989.

Improving the diet

The results of retrospective studies on the link between food and cancer, co-financed by the programme, will be available from the end of 1989. An exploratory prospective study on food and cancer conducted by the International Agency for Community, has also been launched. France, Spain and Italy are currently taking part in the study and in 1989 they will be joined by the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece and the Netherlands.

Systematic screening

1. In 1988 a European network of pilot programmes for screening breast cancer was set up. Initially it involves Portugal, Spain, Greece, France, Belgium and Ireland. It will be completed in 1989.

2. A subcommittee of experts on screening for cancer of the colon and the rectum was set up at the beginning of 1989 to assess the effectiveness of existing programmes.

¹ See also the preceding reports COM(88) 239 final of 16. 5. 1988 and SEC(88) 1927 final of 14. 12. 1988.

² COM(89) 163.

³ COM(88) 845 final.

⁴ OJ L 179, 9. 7. 1988, p. 44.

⁵ OJ C 208, 8. 8. 1988, p. 43.



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II — Training health staff

A — Initial training

1. The three Advisory Committees on the training of doctors, dentists and nurses issued their opinion of the cancerology content of the various university curricula concerned. The main conclusions will be published in the second quarter of 1989.
2. Following the 'Consensus' conference organized by the Commission and

EORTC (European Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer) in May 1988, a draft oncology programme for the basic training of medical students has been drawn up and sent to all interested parties.

B — In-service training

1. Fifty oncology training grants have been awarded to doctors or nurses who wish to attend the 1989 seminars at the European School of Oncology in Italy.

2. Similarly, health staff involved in the breast-cancer pilot screening network were able to attend training seminars in 1989, in Utrecht (the Netherlands), which is one of the leading centres on the subject.

3. The first European handbook for general practitioners (on lung cancer) has been sent to a range of GPs for their assessment. A second manual on breast cancer is being drawn up with the assistance of the top European specialists in the field.

III — Information and health education

A — Informing the public

1. The European Anti-cancer Week was held successfully from 1 to 8 May 1988. Since then attention has focused on the European Cancer Information Year in 1989. To this end, a number of preparatory meetings have been organized with the main partner networks in the Europe against cancer programme.

2. Preparation for European Cancer Information Year

In 1988, the broad thrust of national programmes of activities for 1989 were established, plus a calendar of European events. These included:

January and February 1989, press conferences in the capitals of the 12 Member States to launch the European Cancer Information Year;

publication (in January, June and September 1989) of the results of the three surveys on awareness and implementation of the European Code against cancer by the general public, GPs and teachers;

several European seminars and congresses on cancer;

production of various European television programmes, which will be broadcast on several channels from May 1989 on the following topics: skin cancer, occupational cancer, breast cancer, dissuading young people from smoking, cancer treatment, living with cancer;

sports events (cycle rallies, marathons) in the various capitals to promote the European Code by stressing the links between a healthy life and reducing the risk of cancer;

mobile exhibitions (using trains, buses and marquees) on the European Code and the treatment and prevention of cancer from June to October 1989;

a repeat European Anti-cancer Week from 9 to 15 October 1989, with plans for a Eurovision programme.

3. As for national measures with a European dimension, these will mainly involve circulating the European Code against cancer as widely as possible.

B — Health education

The end of 1988 and the first quarter of 1989 were used to prepare the following two European events:

1. A European congress on the role of anti-cancer organizations in health education which was held in April 1989 in Viterbo, Italy.

2. A European conference on teaching cancer prevention in schools, which will be held in early 1990 in Paris.

(iii) continuation of work to determine the carcinogenic risks of asbestos fibres modified by several physico-chemical treatments.

3. *Continued coordination of research in radiotherapy at European level to improve radiotherapy by neutron capture (BNCT project) or light ions (Eulima project)*

4. *Continued coordination of European medical research into automated analysis of tissues*

An initial project concerns analytical cytometry for clinical purposes. A new proposal setting out two major approaches was approved in November 1988.

A second project involves automated evaluation of chromosomal anomalies.

5. *Continued coordination of European research into medical imagery*

A new project on tissue characterization with the assistance of spectroscopy (MRS) and imagery (MRI) by magnetic resonance was approved in June 1988.

Another project on tomography by the emission of positrons (TEP) in the study of cell regeneration and degeneration was approved in November 1988.

6. *Stepping up coordination of European research into the clinical treatment and control of multicentre therapeutic trials*

The support given to EORTC and its data centre was increased in 1988. In addition, the Eurocode data-processing network which facilitates direct communication with oncologists and their participation in EORTC clinical trials, has been improved by the installation of peripheral nodes in the United Kingdom, France and the Netherlands.

At the same time, it has been decided to use the Petten reactor (Joint Research Centre, the Netherlands) to establish a pilot centre for the treatment of certain malignant brain tumours (gliomas) by improved radiotherapy based on capturing neutrons by injecting boron into the tumour. The Commission also organized a seminar from 3 to 5 Novem-

IV — Cancer research

Implementation of the fourth programme to coordinate medical research into cancer has continued.

1. *European study awards to encourage the mobility of cancer researchers*

In 1988, 50 grants were awarded to young scientists wishing to spend up to two years in another State or participating in this action.

2. *Continued cofinancing by the Community of research into environmental carcinogenic factors*

Three major European projects were under way in 1988:

(i) genetic effects of chemical products present in the environment;

(ii) biomonitoring of human beings exposed to chemical geno-toxic products;

ber 1988 on the potential value of the radiotherapy of cancers using light ion beams.

7. Community cofinancing of research into targeting anti-cancer drugs

In 1988 a project began called 'Treating cancer by targeting drugs by means of neocarzinostatine', designed to establish a series of couples combining neocarzinostatine and monoclonal antibodies, the tumoral specificity of which will have to be tested *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

In 1990, a detailed report on the implementation of the first action plan of the Europe against cancer programme will be published by the European Commission.

Statistical data

Statistical data

- I — Population
- II — Education
- III — Employment
- IV — Unemployment
- V — Working conditions
- VI — Wages — labour costs
- VII — Standard of living
- VIII — Social protection

I. Population

Year		B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
		1. Total population												
		(a) 1 000 — annual average or at 30 June												
1970		9 638	4 929	60 651	8 793	33 779	50 772	2 950	53 822	340	13 039	:	55 632	303 388
1980		9 847	5 123	61 566	9 643	37 386	53 880	3 401	56 434	365	14 150	9 766	56 330	317 890
1981		9 852	5 122	61 682	9 729	37 756	54 182	3 443	56 508	366	14 247	9 854	56 352	319 095
1982		9 856	5 118	61 638	9 789	37 980	54 480	3 480	56 640	366	14 313	9 930	56 306	319 896
1983		9 856	5 114	61 423	9 847	38 172	54 728	3 504	56 836	366	14 367	10 009	56 347	320 569
1984		9 855	5 112	61 175	9 896	38 342	54 947	3 529	57 005	366	14 424	10 089	56 460	321 200
1985		9 858	5 114	61 024	9 934	38 505	55 170	3 540	57 141	367	14 492	10 157	56 618	321 921
1986		9 862	5 120	61 066	9 964	38 668	55 394	3 541	57 246	369	14 572	10 208	56 763	322 774
1987		9 870	5 127	61 199	9 990	38 832	55 630	3 843	57 345	372	14 665	10 250	56 930	323 754
1988		9 883	5 130	61 422	9 983	38 996	55 373	3 538	57 453	372 ¹	14 760			334 590 ²
		(b) Average annual increase as%												
1970/1980		0.2	0.4	0.1	0.9	1.0	0.6	1.4	0.6	7.4	0.8	0.9	0.0	0.4
1980/1981		0.1	-0.0	0.2	0.9	1.0	0.6	1.2	0.2	0.3	0.7	-0.5	0.1	0.3
1981/1982		0.0	-0.1	-0.1	0.6	0.6	0.5	1.2	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.8	0.1	0.3
1982/1983		0.0	-0.1	-0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.0	0.4	0.8	0.1	0.2
1983/1984		0.0	-0.0	-0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.0	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.2
1984/1985		0.0	0.0	-0.2	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.2
1985/1986		0.0	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.2
1986/1987		0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.2	1.1	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3
1987/1988		0.1	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.4	-0.1	0.2	0.0	0.6			0.3
		(c) By age groups as% — end of the year												
0-14 years	1970	23.6	23.1	23.1	24.6	27.9	24.7	31.2	24.4	22.0	27.2	28.8	24.0	24.8
	1980	20.0	20.6	17.8	22.5	25.7	22.3	30.4	21.7	18.6	22.1	25.5	20.8	21.5
	1984	19.0	18.6	15.3	21.1	23.4	21.3	29.3	19.6	17.3	19.7	23.8	19.4	19.8
	1986	18.4	17.9	14.7	20.3	22.3	20.8	28.7	18.4	16.9	18.8	22.7	18.9 ³	19.1
	1987	18.2	17.6	14.7 ³	—	21.8	20.5	28.3	17.8	—	18.5	22.1	19.0	—
15-64 years	1970	63.0	64.5	63.6	64.3	62.4	62.4	57.7	65.0	65.4	62.6	62.0	63.2	63.2
	1980	65.6	64.9	66.7	64.3	63.4	63.9	58.9	64.7	67.8	66.4	63.1	64.2	64.8
	1984	67.4	66.4	70.1	65.6	64.5	65.9	59.8	67.7	69.5	68.3	64.3	65.6	66.8
	1986	67.4	66.7	70.1	66.1	65.4	65.9	60.4	67.2	69.8	68.9	64.9	65.6 ³	67.1
	1987	67.4	67.0	70.1 ³	—	65.7	65.9	60.7	68.4	—	69.0	65.3	65.7	—
65 years and more	1970	13.4	12.4	13.3	11.1	9.8	12.9	11.1	10.6	12.6	10.2	9.2	12.8	12.0
	1980	14.4	14.5	15.5	13.2	10.9	13.8	10.8	13.5	13.6	11.6	11.4	15.0	13.7
	1984	13.7	15.0	14.7	13.3	11.9	12.8	10.8	12.7	13.2	12.0	11.9	15.0	13.4
	1986	14.2	15.4	15.2	13.6	12.3	13.3	10.9 ¹	13.4	13.3	12.3	12.4	15.5 ³	13.8
	1987	14.4	15.4	15.2 ³	—	12.5	13.6	11.0	13.8	—	12.5	12.6	15.2	—

¹ 1. 1. 1988.² 1987 for Portugal and United Kingdom.³ at 31. 12. 1986.

: = data not available.

Source: Demographic statistics 1989, Eurostat.

I. Population (continued)

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
2. Components of population changes													
(a) Birth rate (live births per 1 000 inhabitants)													
1970	14.8	14.4	13.4	16.5	19.6	16.8	21.8	16.8	13.0	18.3	20.0	16.2	16.4
1980	12.6	11.2	10.1	15.4	15.2	14.9	21.8	11.3	11.4	12.8	16.2	13.4	13.0
1981	12.6	10.4	10.1	14.5	14.1	14.9	21.0	11.0 ¹	12.1	12.5	15.4	13.0	12.7
1982	12.2	10.3	10.1	14.0	13.6	14.6	20.4	10.9 ¹	11.8	12.0	15.2	12.8	12.4
1983	11.9	9.9	9.7	13.5	12.7	13.7	19.1	10.6 ¹	11.4	11.8	14.4	12.8	11.9
1984	11.7	10.1	9.5	12.7	12.3	13.8	18.1	10.3 ¹	11.5	12.1	14.2	12.9	11.8
1985	11.6	10.5	9.6	11.7	11.7 ¹	13.9	17.6	10.1 ¹	11.2	12.3	12.8	13.3	11.8
1986	11.9	10.8	10.3	11.3	11.2 ¹	14.1 ¹	17.3	9.7 ¹	11.7	12.7	12.4	13.3	11.9
1987	11.9	11.0	10.5	10.7 ¹	10.9	13.8 ¹	16.6 ¹	9.6 ¹	11.4	12.7	12.0	13.6	11.8
1988	12.1	11.5	11.0	10.8	—	13.8	15.4	—	12.4	12.6	—	—	—
(b) Death rate (deaths per 1 000 inhabitants)													
1970	12.3	9.8	12.1	8.4	8.3	10.7	11.4	9.7	12.2	8.4	10.3	11.8	10.6
1980	11.5	10.9	11.6	9.1	7.7	10.2	9.8	9.8	11.3	8.1	9.7	11.7	10.3
1981	11.4	11.0	11.7	8.9	7.8	10.2	9.6	9.7 ¹	11.2	8.1	9.6	11.7	10.2
1982	11.4	10.8	11.6	8.8	7.5	10.0	9.3	9.4 ¹	11.3	8.2	9.3	11.8	10.1
1983	11.6	11.2	11.7	9.2	7.9	10.2	9.4	9.9 ¹	11.3	8.2	9.6	11.7	10.3
1984	11.1	11.2	11.3	8.9	7.8	9.9	9.1	9.4 ¹	11.1	8.3	9.6	11.4	10.0
1985	11.2	11.4	11.5	9.3	8.0 ¹	10.0	9.4	9.6 ¹	11.0	8.5	9.6	11.8	10.2
1986	11.2	11.3	11.5	9.2	7.9 ¹	9.9	9.5 ¹	9.5 ¹	10.7	8.6	9.4	11.7	10.1
1987	10.7	11.3	11.2	9.6	8.0	9.5	8.8 ¹	9.3 ¹	10.8	8.3	9.3	11.3	9.9
1988	10.6	11.5	11.1	9.1	—	9.4	8.9	—	10.3	8.4	—	—	—
(c) Net immigration (per 1 000 inhabitants)													
1970	+0.4	+2.4	+9.2	-5.3	-0.8	+3.5	-1.2	-2.2	+3.1	+2.6	-16.4	-0.3	+1.4
1980	-0.3	+0.1	+5.1	+5.2	+3.0	+0.8	-0.2	-0.1	+3.7	+3.7	+ 4.3	-0.7	+1.2
1981	-0.8	-0.4	+2.5	+0.7	0.0	+1.1	+0.3	-0.5	+1.1	+1.2	+ 1.7	-1.5	+0.9
1982	-0.5	-0.0	-1.2	+0.8	-0.6	+0.7	-3.2	+1.9	-0.9	+0.2	+ 1.8	-1.0	+0.1
1983	-0.8	+0.3	-1.9	+0.9	-0.1	+0.3	-2.7	+2.4	+0.1	+0.4	+ 3.3	+0.3	+0.3
1984	0.0	+0.8	-2.5	+1.0	-0.2	+0.3	-5.0	+1.6	+1.3	+0.6	+ 3.3	+0.9	+0.2
1985	0.0	+1.9	+1.4	+0.5	+0.5	0.0	-7.3	+1.4	+2.3	+1.7	+ 2.3	+1.3	+0.6
1986	-0.1	+2.1	+3.2	+1.1	+0.9	0.0	-7.3	+1.3	+5.4	+2.2	+ 1.3	+0.5	+1.1
1987	-0.1	+1.2	+3.6	+0.8	+1.3	0.0	-9.0	+1.5	+6.4	+3.0	+ 1.2	+0.5	+1.3
1988	0.0	+0.1	—	—	—	0.0	-1.0	—	—	+2.4	—	—	—

¹ Provisional figures.

Source: Demographic statistics 1989, Eurostat.

II. Education

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12 ²
1. Compulsory education (age)													
1970	6–14	7–14	6–14	7–13	6–14	6–15½	6–14	6–14	6–15	6–14	6–12	5–15	5–15½
1985	6–18 ¹	7–16	6–15	5½–14½	6–14	6–15½	6–15	6–14	6–15	5–16	6–14	5–16	5–18
1986													
2. Numbers of pupils and students													
(a) 1 000													
1970/1971	2 361	951	11 060	1 648	6 929	12 396	766	11 036	61.5	3 204	1 510	10 819	62 741
1980/1981	2 289	1 103	12 455	1 908	9 538	13 442	911	12 699	61.2	3 517	1 826	11 255	71 002
1985/1986	2 227	1 063	10 872	2 049	10 155	13 421	970	11 882	—	3 315	2 123	10 247	68 380 ¹
1986/1987	2 206	1 055	10 652	2 060	10 186	13 544	—	11 719	—	3 154	—	10 197	68 079
(b) as % of the population aged 5 to 24 years													
1970/1971	78.4	61.3	63.3	59.7	60.2	73.2	69.7	66.1	62.1	68.2	47.7	63.4	65.3
1980/1981	77.6	72.5	68.9	65.6	74.6	79.4	70.4	72.2	59.0	74.5	54.6	65.8	71.5
1985/1986	82.2	73.4	66.9	70.5	78.8	81.6	73.0	68.7	—	75.0	62.8	62.7	71.1
1986/1987	81.0	73.1	66.9	70.8	79.6	82.8	—	68.9	—	72.3	—	62.5	—
(c) by level of education as %													
<i>First level</i>													
1970/1971	44.2	47.8	36.9	55.8	51.4	41.5	52.2	44.7	52.3	47.7	76.0	54.0	46.4
1980/1981	37.5	39.4	23.1	47.2	38.8	36.5	47.2	34.9	44.2	39.9	63.7	44.1	36.8
1985/1986	33.6	38.1	21.7	43.5	35.2	30.9	44.2	31.3	—	35.5	58.3	42.3	33.7
1986/1987	34.2	37.1	22.3	42.1	33.6	30.6	—	30.2	—	—	—	43.8	33.7
<i>Second level</i>													
1970/1971	31.1	40.1	46.2	33.7	31.7	34.4	27.2	34.7	33.9	31.4	18.4	38.9	36.3
1980/1981	37.1	45.2	54.8	38.8	41.7	38.1	33.0	42.0	41.5	40.3	25.8	48.3	43.7
1985/1986	37.9	44.8	49.6	39.8	44.5	40.4	34.9	45.5	—	44.3	30.8	48.4	44.4
1986/1987	38.2	46.3	47.2	40.7	46.0	41.0	—	46.1	—	44.2	—	46.8	44.1
<i>Third level</i>													
1970/1971	5.5	9.9	6.1	5.2	5.1	6.2	3.4	6.2	0.9	5.5	4.5	4.2	5.6
1980/1981	8.6	9.6	9.7	6.3	7.1	7.6	4.6	8.3	1.3	8.1	5.0	4.7	7.5
1985/1986	9.8	11.8	14.1	8.9	9.2	9.5	5.7	9.4	—	9.3	4.9	5.9	9.4
1986/1987	10.2	11.2	14.6	9.6	9.7	9.5	—	9.8	—	9.9	—	6.0	9.6

¹ 16 years and older: at least participation in part-time education.² Eurostat estimates.

Source: Eurostat.

III. Employment

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
1. Working population													
(a) 1 000 — annual average													
1970	3 824	2 380	26 817	3 430 ¹	13 049	21 434	1 118	20 886	135.8	4 795	—	25 308	127 189
1975	3 999	2 486	26 884	3 434 ¹	13 757	22 354	1 158	21 233	150.3	4 991	4 030	25 894	130 370
1980	4 156	2 662	27 217	3 636	13 456	23 370	1 247	22 459	152.5	5 386	4 338	26 839	134 918
1985	4 202	2 834	27 844	4 078 ¹	13 938	23 923	1 305	23 495	155.3	5 812	4 522	27 797	139 905
1986	4 212	2 873	28 022	4 073 ¹	14 147	23 999	1 308	23 851	157.1	5 864	4 519	27 985	141 010
1987	4 217	2 907	:	4 069	14 676	24 096	1 312	24 044	159.3	6 495	4 579	28 284	144 280 ¹
1988	4 223	2 926	:	4 139*	14 972	24 151	1 310	24 379	161.2	6 647*	4 623	28 552	145 764*
(b) as % of total population (activity rates)													
1970	39.7	48.3	44.2	39.0 ¹	38.6	42.2	37.9	38.8	40.0	36.8	—	45.5	41.9
1975	40.8	49.1	43.5	38.0 ¹	38.7	42.4	36.4	38.3	41.7	36.5	45.4	46.1	41.8
1980	42.2	52.0	44.2	37.7	36.0	43.4	36.7	39.8	41.8	38.1	46.2	47.6	42.5
1985	42.6	55.4	45.6	41.1 ¹	36.2	43.4	36.9	41.1	42.4	39.9	46.9	49.1	43.5
1986	42.7	56.1	45.9	40.9 ¹	36.6	43.3	36.9	41.7	42.7	40.0	46.5	49.3	43.7
1987	42.7	56.7	:	40.7 ¹	37.8	43.3	37.0	41.9	42.8	44.3 ¹	46.9	49.7	44.6 ¹
1988	42.7	57.0	:	41.5*	38.4	43.2	37.0	42.4	43.0	45.0*	44.9	50.0	44.9*
2. Total employment													
(a) 1 000 — annual average													
1970	3 698	2 363	26 651	3 294 ¹	12 856	20 905	1 053	19 775	140.2	4 708 ¹	—	24 753	124 192
1975	3 783	2 365	25 810	3 359 ¹	13 133	21 453	1 073	20 007	157.5	4 747	3 852	25 052	124 791
1980	3 797	2 489	26 328	3 541	11 946	21 903	1 156	20 869	158.2	5 077	4 007	25 327	126 598
1985	3 662	2 598	25 541	3 774 ¹	10 955	21 481	1 079	21 113	160.9	5 178	4 137	24 618	124 297
1986	3 698	2 675	25 794	3 786 ¹	11 174	21 510	1 081	21 240	165.1	5 259	4 138	24 756	125 275
1987	3 712	2 721	:	3 782 ¹	11 727	21 564	1 081	21 212	169.6	5 864 ¹	4 195	25 378	128 489 ¹
1988	3 759	2 740	:	3 835*	12 118	21 708	1 091	21 493	174.8	6 032*	4 299	26 212	130 828*
(b) Female employment by sectors as %													
1970	31.9	38.6	36.0	26.4 ¹	24.1	35.0	26.7	27.5	26.9	25.7 ¹	—	35.8	32.5
1980	35.1	44.0	37.3	28.1	27.8	38.5	28.3	31.3	30.8	30.0	38.0	39.8	35.6
1985	37.4	44.5	38.2	32.3 ¹	28.3	40.5	30.8	32.4	33.7	33.6	40.0	41.7	37.2
1986	38.0	44.6	38.4	32.3 ¹	28.8	40.8	31.5	32.8	32.8	33.8	42.1	42.2	37.5
1987	38.3	44.9	:	32.7 ¹	29.6	41.0	32.1	33.3	33.3	35.9 ¹	41.2	42.6	38.0 ¹
1988	38.8	44.9	:	32.7*	30.3	41.0	32.1	33.4	34.7	36.9*	41.8	42.8	38.2*
(c) Total employment by sectors as %													
<i>Agriculture, fisheries</i>													
1970	4.7	11.3	8.5	38.8 ¹	28.5	13.2	26.9	19.6	9.3	6.1 ¹	—	3.2	9.4
1980	2.9	8.0	5.5	28.7	18.5	8.5	18.1	13.9	5.4	4.8	28.0	2.6	—
1985	2.9	7.0	5.3	27.5 ¹	17.6	7.4	15.8	10.9	4.2	4.8	23.4	2.5	8.4
1986	2.8	6.7	5.2	27.1 ¹	15.6	7.1	15.5	10.6	3.9	4.7	21.5	2.4	8.1
1987	2.7	6.3	:	25.7 ¹	14.7	6.9	15.2	10.2	3.7	4.9 ¹	22.1	2.3	7.6 ¹
1988	2.7	6.2	:	:	14.0	6.6	15.2	9.6	3.4	4.7*	20.6	2.2	7.3*

¹ Estimates.

— = break in series.

* = provisional data.

: = data not available.

Source: Eurostat.

III. Employment (continued)

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
<i>Industry</i>													
1980	33.6	28.6	43.2	28.7	34.8	35.0	32.1	36.9	38.1	30.8	35.3	37.2	36.9
1985	29.2	26.4	40.2	26.0 ¹	30.7	31.2	28.4	32.7	33.6	26.6	33.3	31.1	32.8
1986	28.6	26.7	40.1	26.7 ¹	31.0	30.6	28.4	32.1	33.0	26.2	33.5	30.2	32.4
1987	28.0	26.9	:	26.6 ¹	31.4	30.0	27.8	31.7	32.4	32.2 ¹	34.7	29.5	32.2 ¹
1988	27.5	25.9	:	:	31.6	29.6	27.5	31.6	31.5	26.1 [*]	35.0	29.1	32.0 [*]
<i>Services</i>													
1980	63.4	63.4	51.3	42.6	46.7	56.5	49.8	49.2	56.6	64.4	36.7	60.2	53.6
1985	67.9	66.6	54.5	46.5 ¹	51.7	61.5	55.8	56.5	62.2	68.6	43.3	66.4	58.8
1986	68.6	66.6	54.7	46.1 ¹	53.4	62.3	56.1	57.3	63.1	69.0	44.9	67.4	59.5
1987	69.3	66.8	:	47.7	53.9	63.1	57.1	58.1	63.9	60.2 ¹	43.2	68.2	60.2 ¹
1988	69.8	67.9	:	:	54.4	63.8	57.3	58.8	65.1	69.2 [*]	44.4	68.7	60.7 [*]
3. Wage earners in employment													
(a) Total (1 000) annual average													
1975	3 152	1 932	22 014	—	9 305	17 648	771	14 251	132.8	4 140	2 586	23 056	—
1980	3 174	2 097	23 009	1 853	8 437	18 321	874	15 055	137.0	4 462	2 729	23 314	103 462
1985	3 017	2 284	22 275	1 955 ¹	7 654	18 145	820	15 023	142.1	4 590	2 815	21 830	100 544
1986	3 043	2 365	22 527	1 959 ¹	7 968	18 203	831	15 084	146.6	4 686	2 852	21 903	101 563
1987	3 047	2 412	:	1 979	8 290	18 279	822	15 084	151.7	5 166	2 865	22 127	104 302 ¹
1988	3 084	2 434	:	:	8 658	18 440	823	15 337	156.8	5 334 [*]	2 981	22 883	106 443 [*]
(b) as % of total employment													
1975	83.3	81.7	85.3	—	70.9	82.3	71.9	71.2	84.3	87.2	67.1	92.0	—
1980	83.6	84.3	87.4	52.3	70.6	83.6	75.6	72.1	86.6	87.9	68.1	92.1	81.7
1985	82.4	87.9	87.2	51.8 ¹	69.9	84.5	76.0	71.2	88.3	88.6	68.0	88.7	80.9
1986	82.3	88.4	87.3	51.7 ¹	71.3	84.6	76.9	71.0	88.8	89.1	68.9	88.5	81.1
1987	82.1	88.7	:	52.3	70.7	84.8	76.0	71.1	89.3	88.1 ¹	68.3	87.5	81.2 ¹
1988	82.0	88.8	:	:	71.4	84.9	75.4	71.4	89.7	88.4 [*]	69.3	87.3	81.4 [*]
4. Employees in the iron and steel industry (ECSC)													
(a) 1 000 — annual average													
1975	61.4	2.7	226.8	—	—	156.9	0.8	96.1	22.6	25.6	—	183.3	—
1980	47.4	2.5	201.0	—	—	113.6	0.7	100.6	16.0	21.0	—	133.4	—
1985	35.6	1.7	152.0	4.2	—	80.7	0.6	71.1	12.4	18.9	—	60.7	—
1986	32.5	1.8	147.9	4.3	52.2	71.9	0.5	69.3	12.5	18.9	5.9	56.9	474.4
1987	28.9	1.6	137.3	4.0	47.5	62.8	0.6	65.1	11.6	18.8	5.7	55.1	439.0
1988	28.3	1.6	131.1	4.0	43.4	55.3	0.6	61.3	10.7	18.4	5.5	55.2	415.5
(b) Average annual increase (+) or decrease (—) as %													
1970/1975	+ 0.5	—	—0.9	—	—	+ 1.5	—	+5.3	—0.3	+3.8	—	—	—
1975/1980	— 5.1	—1.6	—2.4	—	—	— 6.2	—3.2	+0.9	—6.6	—3.9	—	— 6.9	—
1980/1985	— 5.5	—7.4	—5.4	—	—	— 6.6	—2.5	—6.7	—5.0	—2.1	—	—14.6	—
1986/1987	—11.2	—9.3	—7.2	—6.5	—9.1	—12.7	+8.6	—6.2	—7.4	—0.5	—2.4	— 3.2	—7.5
1987/1988	— 2.0	—2.9	—4.5	—1.4	—8.6	—12.0	+5.1	—5.7	—7.4	—2.0	—3.8	+ 0.3	—5.4

¹ Estimates.

— = break in series.

* = provisional data.

: = data not available.

Source: Eurostat.

IV. Unemployment

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
1. Persons listed as 'unemployed' on national registers													
1 000 — annual average													
1970	80	25	148	49	146	262	59	888	0	59	13	558	2 287
1975	201	122	1 086	35	257	840	96	1 107	0.3	260	107	909	5 018
1980	369	176	899	37	1 277	1 451	101	1 580	1.1	325	285	1 591	8 093
1985	557	242	2 305	85	2 642	2 458	231	2 959	2.6	761	342	3 271	15 856
1987	501	216	2 233	110	2 924	2 622	247	3 317	2.7	686	319	2 953	16 130
1988	459	240	2 237	109	2 858	2 563	241	3 833	2.5	433	306	2 370	15 653
2. Unemployment rates for comparison between Member States (not seasonally adjusted) — average annual rates													
(a) All age groups (%) — Males and females													
1983	12.6	9.5	6.9	9.0	17.8	8.2	15.2	9.0	3.6	12.5	7.7	11.2	10.0
1984	12.6	9.1	7.1	9.3	20.6	9.8	17.0	9.5	3.1	12.4	8.5	11.4	10.8
1985	11.8	7.5	7.2	8.8	21.9	10.3	18.4	9.5	2.9	10.6	8.6	11.5	10.9
1986	11.8	5.8	6.6	8.3	21.2	10.4	18.3	10.5	2.6	10.3	8.3	11.5	10.8
1987	11.5	5.8	6.3	8.1	20.5	10.5	18.1	10.2	2.7	10.2	6.8	10.6	10.5
1988	10.5	6.4	6.3	8.5	19.6	10.2	17.8	10.7	2.2	10.3	5.7	8.7	10.0
(b) Under 25 years (%) — Males and females													
1983	27.6	17.9	11.6	25.1	42.6	21.5	22.3	30.9	8.1	22.7	18.6	20.6	23.1
1984	28.2	14.4	11.5	26.2	47.0	26.2	24.4	31.9	6.8	21.5	20.4	19.7	24.1
1985	25.4	11.1	10.4	24.9	48.3	26.1	26.4	31.7	6.8	18.1	20.3	18.7	23.4
1986	23.9	8.0	7.8	25.8	46.1	25.0	26.9	33.3	6.3	17.1	19.3	18.4	22.6
1987	23.2	8.6	7.1	27.1	43.2	24.1	26.4	31.5	6.4	17.8	15.8	15.8	21.2
1988	20.3	9.4	6.7	27.4	40.7	22.9	25.8	32.5	5.4	17.2	13.1	12.3	20.0
3. Structure of unemployment for comparison between Member States — annual average													
(a) Proportion of women among the unemployed as %													
1983	56.5	50.8	45.1	50.7	35.1	55.5	33.7	56.2	50.4	40.5	62.6	36.1	45.2
1984	58.0	52.8	47.4	52.7	34.1	53.8	33.4	56.3	48.7	41.7	58.7	38.2	45.6
1985	60.0	57.0	48.0	53.8	35.0	53.1	34.0	56.8	51.1	42.6	56.5	39.9	46.2
1987	59.7	56.3	49.7	56.0	44.2	55.2	34.9	55.9	53.9	53.3	57.1	40.1	49.2
1988	58.6	54.6	50.3	56.8	48.7	56.2	34.8	56.7	51.8	54.6	60.6	39.9	51.0
(b) Proportion of young people aged under 25 among the unemployed as %													
1983	39.8	36.7	33.3	42.0	52.8	44.2	40.5	64.2	51.3	38.8	57.5	41.1	46.1
1984	38.2	34.0	32.3	41.8	50.1	45.4	39.4	61.7	48.2	37.2	55.8	39.6	44.9
1985	35.3	31.1	28.9	40.2	47.5	42.2	38.7	58.8	49.3	35.0	53.6	37.6	42.4
1987	31.3	30.6	21.3	44.6	47.5	35.8	36.2	53.4	46.0	39.0	50.2	33.6	39.2
1988	28.0	30.5	19.9	42.9	46.0	33.5	34.7	54.2	45.6	37.4	48.7	31.2	38.2

—: break in series.

Source: Eurostat.

V. Working conditions

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
	1. Hours of work per week												
	(a) Normal hours of work for industrial workers fixed by collective agreements												
1970	42-44	42.5-41.75	40-41	48	—	40 ¹	41-42	42-44	41-45	42.5-41.75	—	40-41	40-48
1980	37.5-40	40	40	43-44	42-45	40 ¹	40	36-40	40	40	—	39-40	—
1985/1986	36-40	39-40	38-40	38.75-40	39-40	37.5-39	40	35-40	40	36-40	40-45	35-40	35-45
1986/1987													
	(b) Hours of work offered to industrial workers — October												
1970	42.7	—	44.1	44.6 ²	—	45.9	—	42.5	45.0	44.3	—	—	—
1980	35.7	38.5	41.6	39.0 ²	—	40.9	42.3	38.4	40.2	40.8	—	40.7	—
1984	35.7	38.5	41.2	39.1 ²	—	38.9	41.3	37.4	40.1	40.5	—	42.0	—
1985	35.7	37.6	40.7	39.3 ²	—	—	41.1	—	40.6	40.5	—	42.2	—
1986	35.6	38.6	40.5	—	—	—	41.6	—	41.0	40.4	—	42.0	—
1987	36.0	38.4	40.5	—	—	—	—	—	41.2	40.2	—	42.5	—
	2. Basic annual paid holidays for industrial workers fixed by collective agreements in days ³												
1970	18	18	16*-24	6-12	—	24	12-18	12-15	18-24	15*-18*	—	12-18	6-24
1980	24	26*-30	21*-30*	10-12	20-25	24	17*-19	20*-24	25*	20*-24*	—	18-23	10-30*
1985/1986	24-25	26*-30	21*-32*	20-24	25	30	24	25-30	25*	26*	20-25	20-27	20-32*
1986/1987													
	3. Strikes												
	(a) Working days lost (1 000)												
1970	1 432	102	93	—	1 092	1 742	1 008	18 277	—	263	—	10 980	—
1980	217	192	77	2 617	6 178	1 511	412	13 514	0	54	533	11 964	37 269
1984	—	131	2 921	562	6 358	1 317	386	8 703	0	29	270	27 135	—
1985	130	2 332	35	1 094	3 224	727	418	3 831	0	89	275	6 402	—
1986	—	93	28	1 294	2 280	568	309	5 044	0	39	382	1 920	—
1987	—	137	33	—	—	512	264	3 960	—	58	113	3 546	—
	(b) Working days lost per 1 000 employees												
1970	482	56	4	—	135 ⁴	110	1 405	1 445	—	69	—	489	—
1980	68	89	3	1 569	777 ⁴	92	471	1 093	0	13	195	513	—
1984	—	60	132	291	827	72	463	586	0	6	96	1 258	—
1985	43	1 021	2	560	421	40	509	255	0	19	98	293	—
1986	—	39	1	645	286	31	371	374	0	8	134	88	—
1987	—	57	1	—	—	28	322	263	—	12	40	160	—

¹ Normal hours fixed by legislation.² Hours paid.³ Working days; where the data have been annotated * they refer to days of work.⁴ Estimates.

Sources: 1 (a) and 2: National collective agreements.

1 (b) *Employment and unemployment — 1988*, Eurostat; *Bulletin of labour statistics*, ILO.

3 (a) and (b): Eurostat.

VI. Wages — labour costs

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
1. Average gross hourly earnings of industrial workers ¹ — October ²													
(a) Converted into current purchasing power standards													
1980	5.40	6.10	5.11	2.85	—	3.89	4.31	4.59	5.90	5.40	2.31	4.69	—
1985	8.04	8.78	7.96	5.10	—	6.22	7.05	7.24	8.50	8.04	3.30	7.87	—
1986	8.19	9.18	8.48	5.03	—	6.45	7.58	—	9.13	8.58	3.43	8.40	—
1987	8.54	10.13	8.98	4.95	—	6.80	7.88	—	9.76	9.15	3.71	8.96	—
1988	8.94*	10.70*	9.60*	5.57	—	—	8.52*	—	—	—	3.98*	9.44*	—
(b) In national currencies — nominal trend — indices (October 1980 = 100)													
1980	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	—
1985	132.3	139.8	121.3	301.8	181.6	164.9	181.2	199.8	131.3	117.9	252.8	154.8	—
1986	132.9	145.4	126.1	334.9	198.3	170.2	195.8	—	135.6	119.9	298.6	165.3	—
1987	135.9	160.7	130.9	366.1	215.2	177.5	205.9	—	137.8	122.1	348.6	176.2	—
1988	139.2	170.8	136.5	447.7	—	—	—	—	—	—	400.0	189.5	—
(c) In national currencies — average annual rates of increase as %													
1975/1980	8.9	10.4	6.4	22.8	—	13.8	16.2	20.4	7.9	7.1	—	13.6	—
1980/1985	5.8	6.9	3.9	24.7	12.7	10.5	12.6	14.8	5.6	3.3	20.4	9.1	—
1985/1986	0.5	4.0	4.0	11.0	9.1	3.2	8.1	—	3.3	1.7	18.1	6.8	—
1986/1987	2.3	10.5	3.8	9.3	8.5	4.3	5.2	—	—	—	16.7	6.6	—
1987/1988	2.4	6.3	4.3	22.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	14.7	7.5	—
(d) Development in real terms — indices (October 1980 = 100)													
1980	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	—
1985	95.4	97.5	100.8	116.0	104.1	106.8	103.0	108.1	92.6	97.5	89.5	111.6	—
1986	95.0	97.1	105.8	105.5	103.8	107.8	107.9	—	96.5	99.2	94.9	115.7	—
1987	95.5	103.3	108.8	100.0	107.6	108.9	109.9	—	97.8	100.7	100.9	118.0	—
1988	96.5	105.3	112.0	107.2	—	—	—	—	—	—	104.7	119.3	—
(e) Development in real terms — average annual rates of increase as %													
1975/1980	2.7	-0.6	2.4	5.6	—	2.8	1.5	2.8	2.2	1.1	—	-0.1	—
1980/1985	-0.9	-0.5	0.2	3.0	0.8	1.3	0.6	1.6	-1.5	-0.5	-2.2	2.2	—
1985/1986	-0.4	-0.4	5.0	-9.1	-0.3	0.9	4.8	—	4.2	1.7	6.0	3.7	—
1986/1987	0.5	6.4	2.8	-5.2	3.7	1.0	1.9	—	—	—	6.3	2.0	—
1987/1988	1.0	1.9	2.9	7.2	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.8	1.1	—

¹ All industry (NACE 1-5 except 16 and 17). Ireland and Denmark: building and civil engineering excluded. Greece: manufacturing industries. Spain: NACE 1-5, non-harmonized data.

² Ireland: September.

* Provisional data.

Source: Eurostat: *Harmonized statistics on earnings — Labour cost surveys*.

VI. Wages — labour costs (continued)

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
2. Average gross monthly earnings of non-manual workers in industry ¹ — October													
(a) In national currencies — nominal trend — indices (October 1980 = 100)													
1980	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	—	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	—
1985	128.2	147.9	123.3	—	—	154.2	188.2	202.2	135.6	115.5	260.9	161.0	—
1986	129.2	156.7	128.6	—	—	163.6	202.6	—	143.5	119.8	316.0	177.0	—
1987	130.8	167.2	133.3	—	—	169.3	214.8	—	144.4	122.0	368.9	192.0	—
1988	135.3	176.7	138.3	—	—	—	226.6	—	—	—	423.0	—	—
(b) In national currencies — average annual rates of increase as %													
1975/1980	8.2	8.4	7.0	—	—	11.9	—	17.8	8.6	7.3	—	14.6	—
1980/1985	5.1	8.1	4.3	—	—	9.0	13.5	15.1	6.3	2.9	21.1	10.0	—
1985/1986	0.8	5.9	4.3	—	—	6.1	7.7	—	5.8	3.7	21.1	9.9	—
1986/1987	1.2	6.7	3.7	—	—	3.5	6.0	—	0.6	1.8	16.7	8.5	—
1987/1988	3.4	5.7	3.8	—	—	—	5.5	—	—	—	14.7	—	—
3. Labour costs in industry ^{2,3} (manual and non-manual workers) — Industries with 10 or more employees													
(a) Average hourly labour costs in ECU													
1975	5.97	5.67	5.76	—	—	4.59	2.68	4.20	5.62	6.45	—	3.02	—
1978	9.31	7.93	8.49	—	—	6.44	3.71	5.01	8.54	9.03	—	3.81	6.10
1981	12.08	9.63	10.94	3.91	—	9.63	6.03	7.40	9.71	10.73	2.50	7.43	9.10
1984	13.09	11.90	14.14	5.69	—	12.17	8.94	10.39	10.96	13.59	2.29	8.84	11.40
1985	13.92	12.60	14.90	—	—	—	9.27	—	11.38	14.28	—	—	—
1986	14.70	13.51	16.12	—	—	—	9.87	—	11.96	15.58	—	—	—
1987	15.24	14.93	—	—	—	—	9.87	—	12.59	16.36	—	—	—
(b) Country with the highest level = 100													
1975	92.6	87.9	89.3	—	—	71.2	41.6	65.1	87.1	100.0	—	46.8	—
1978	100.0	85.2	91.2	—	—	69.2	39.8	53.8	91.7	97.0	—	40.9	65.8
1981	100.0	79.7	90.6	32.4	—	79.7	49.9	61.3	80.4	88.8	20.7	61.5	75.6
1984	92.6	84.2	100.0	40.2	—	86.1	63.2	73.5	77.5	96.1	16.2	62.5	80.3
1985	93.4	84.6	100.0	—	—	—	62.2	—	76.4	95.8	—	—	—
1986	91.2	83.8	100.0	—	—	—	61.2	—	74.2	96.7	—	—	—
1987	93.2	91.3	—	—	—	—	60.3	—	77.0	100.0	—	—	—
(c) Direct cost of labour in industry as % of total costs													
1975	75.6	93.3	79.9	—	—	70.9	85.8	69.9	82.5	73.8	—	85.6	—
1978	76.1	94.5	78.3	—	—	71.1	86.0	70.9	83.8	73.9	—	82.4	—
1981	75.9	94.3	77.9	83.0	—	70.5	84.0	74.2	84.6	73.3	75.0 ⁴	81.5	—
1984	75.3	92.5	77.0	81.0	—	68.8	—	73.3	83.7	73.3	75.0	83.3	—

¹ All industry (NACE 1-5 except 16 and 17). Ireland and Denmark: building and civil engineering excluded. Greece: manufacturing industries. Spain: NACE 1-5, non-harmonized data.

² All industry (NACE 1-5 except 16 and 17).

³ 1985, 1986 and 1987 estimates.

⁴ Portugal: figures for 1982.

Source: Eurostat: *Harmonized statistics on earnings — Labour cost surveys*.

VII. Standard of living

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
	1. Dwellings												
	(a) Existing dwellings per 1 000 inhabitants — end of the year												
1970	372	353	341	280	314	376	244	319	332	295	—	346	349
1980	386	422	412	354	350 ¹	436	263	389 ²	383	343	348 ²	382	387
1984	404	475	438	—	398	447 ³	276	—	—	367	—	393	408
1985	405	439	443	—	—	449	278	—	—	372	—	396	—
1986	—	446	477	—	—	451	283	—	—	377	—	399	—
1987													
	(b) Completed dwellings per 1 000 inhabitants												
1970	4.8 ⁴	10.3	7.8	13.0 ⁴	9.1	9.3	4.6	7.0	5.2	9.1	2.9	6.6	7.8
1980	4.9 ⁴	5.9	6.3	20.2 ⁴	7.0	7.0	8.1	3.3	5.6	8.1	4.1	4.5	6.3
1984	2.6 ⁴	5.6	6.5	7.4	5.1	6.3	9.9	3.9	3.8	8.0	4.3	4.1	—
1985	3.1 ⁴	4.8	5.1	8.9	—	—	6.7	3.2	3.5	7.0	3.8	3.8	—
1986	2.6	5.6	4.1	11.0	—	5.3	6.4	2.7	3.8	7.5	—	—	—
1987													
	2. Durable consumer goods — end of year												
	(a) Passenger cars per 1 000 inhabitants												
1970	213	218	230	26	71	254	133	190	278	195	47	210	191
1980	321	271	377	90	202	343	217	310	352	322	128	281	298
1983	331	272	400	109	228	372	206	359	385	332	152	318	324
1984	335	282	412	116	230	378	208	366	400	335	159	305	327
1985	339	294	424	127	240	380	202	392	416	339	209	313	343
1986	346	—	441	137	250	389	203	—	425	339	222	324	345
1987													
	(b) Television sets per 1 000 inhabitants												
1970	217	274	275	113	163	216	149	181	208	237	42	294	223
1980	297	362	320	239	252	297	188	234	248	296	143	331	294
1983	302	369	335	257	258	375	205	243	255	310	151	328	294
1984	303	371	341	264	—	—	211	—	—	312	—	330	—
1985	302	—	346	272	—	—	213	—	—	315	—	331	—
1986													
1987													

¹ 1979.

² 1981.

³ Provisional figures.

⁴ Building started.

Source: Review 1970-1979, 1975-1984 and 1977-1986, Eurostat.

VII. Standard of living (continued)

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
	(c) Installed telephones per 1 000 inhabitants												
1970	211	342	228	119	137	173	104	175	241	169	87	270	197
1980	365	644	464	291	315	460	187	337	570	347	138	496	428
1983	417	719	572	336	352	544	235	405	587	380	169	520	466
1984	—	749	598	357	—	—	253	—	—	390	—	—	—
1985	—	—	621	375	—	—	266	—	—	401	—	—	—
	3. Consumer prices												
	(a) Index (1980 = 100)												
1980	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1985	140.5	146.4	121.0	256.3	178.0	158.0	178.4	190.3	142.3	122.3	284.1	141.5	153.7
1986	142.3	151.7	120.7	315.5	193.6	162.2	185.2	201.4	142.7	122.7	317.6	146.3	159.2
1987	144.5	157.8	121.0	366.3	203.8	167.3	191.0	211.0	142.6	122.5	347.2	152.4	164.3
1988	146.3	165.0	122.4	415.7	211.7	171.8	195.1	221.7	144.7	123.6	380.5	159.9	169.4
	(b) Annual average rate of increase as %												
1980/1981	7.6	11.7	6.3	24.5	14.6	13.4	20.4	17.8	8.1	6.7	20.0	11.9	12.1
1981/1982	8.7	10.1	5.3	21.0	14.4	11.8	17.2	16.5	9.4	5.7	22.7	8.6	10.7
1982/1983	7.7	6.9	3.3	20.5	12.2	9.6	10.4	14.7	8.7	2.7	25.1	4.6	8.6
1983/1984	6.4	6.3	2.4	18.3	11.3	7.3	8.6	10.8	5.6	3.2	28.9	5.0	7.4
1984/1985	4.9	4.7	2.2	19.4	8.8	5.8	5.4	9.2	4.1	2.3	19.6	6.1	6.1
1985/1986	1.3	3.6	-0.2	22.8	8.8	2.5	3.8	5.8	0.3	0.3	11.8	3.4	3.6
1986/1987	1.5	4.0	0.2	16.1	5.3	3.1	3.1	4.8	-0.1	-0.2	9.3	4.2	3.2

Source: Eurostat.

VIII. Social protection

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
1. Total social protection expenditure as a % of gross domestic product													
1970	18.7	19.6	21.5	—	—	19.2	13.8	—	15.6	19.7	—	14.3	—
1975	24.2	25.8	29.7	—	—	22.9	19.7	19.6	22.4	26.7	—	20.1	—
1980	28.0	28.7	28.6	—	15.7	25.5	20.6	19.8	26.4	30.4	14.4	21.6	—
1983	30.8	30.2	29.1	—	17.5	28.3	23.9	23.7	26.5	33.8	—	24.1	—
1984	29.4	28.7	28.7	—	17.4	28.7	23.3	23.3	22.8	32.6	—	24.1	—
1985	—	27.5	28.1	—	17.5	28.9	23.9	23.4	24.7	31.2	—	24.2	—
1986	—	—	—	—	17.1	28.7	—	—	—	—	—	24.4	—
2. Social protection benefits													
(a) Benefits per inhabitant at 1980 prices and purchasing power parities													
1975	1 720	2 110	2 190	—	—	1 670	820	1 190	1 760	2 080	—	1 390	—
1980	2 190	2 420	2 500	—	880	2 150	1 020	1 460	2 340	2 590	530	1 660	—
1983	2 290	2 660	2 520	—	960	2 400	1 160	1 820	2 290	2 760	—	1 900	—
1984	2 210	2 620	2 490	—	960	2 470	1 150	1 830	2 440	2 700	—	1 930	—
1985	—	2 630	2 530	—	990	2 510	1 180	1 870	2 450	2 620	—	2 040	—
1986	—	—	—	—	1 020	2 600	—	—	—	—	—	2 120	—
(b) Benefits per function as %													
1970	22.1	29.2	27.7	—	—	26.9	30.8	26.3 ¹	17.7	29.9	—	28.1	—
sickness	12.6	14.1	12.6	—	—	9.9	9.7	21.3	19.0	12.1	—	8.5	—
invalidity,	40.6	36.3	45.6	—	—	41.1	34.6	34.8	50.9	40.5	—	48.7	—
employment injuries	20.0	14.1	10.2	—	—	16.8	16.9	12.9	11.8	13.9	—	11.2	—
old age, survivors	3.7	2.8	2.0	—	—	2.0	2.8	1.1	0.0	3.3	—	2.9	—
maternity, family	0.9	3.6	1.9	—	—	3.4	5.1	3.6	0.6	0.3	—	0.6	—
unemployment, voca-	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	—	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	—
tional training													
others													

¹ Data from the 2nd European social budget.

Source: Sespros, Eurostat.

VIII. Social protection (continued)

Year	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	EUR 12
<i>1986</i>	<i>1984</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>				<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1982</i>		
sickness	21.4	21.6	27.7	—	22.7	25.7	29.0	22.6	23.2*	25.9*	25.9	19.0	—
invalidity,	12.2	8.8	13.2	—	11.6	8.6	7.2	22.1	20.6*	18.7*	18.2	10.1	—
employment injuries	40.2	37.7	42.5	—	47.0	45.1	31.2	45.4	44.6	30.3	38.7	42.0	—
old age, survivors	11.0	10.8	6.6	—	2.0	10.8	12.3	6.5	9.4	9.8	8.2	11.2	—
maternity, family	13.7	15.6	6.7	—	16.3	6.5	14.4	3.2	1.4	12.1	2.5	10.6	—
unemployment,	1.5	5.5	3.3	—	0.4	3.3	5.9	0.2	0.8	3.2	6.4	7.1	—
vocational training													
others													
	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
3. Revenue according to nature (%) 1970													
<i>1970</i>													
employers' contribution	51.0	11.2	47.1	—	—	59.2	21.2	—	36.0	43.3	—	36.6	—
contribution from	21.2	6.4	24.2	—	—	18.9	12.0	—	24.9	35.8	—	20.5	—
protected persons	23.5	79.6	23.7	—	—	18.6	66.0	—	30.3	12.5	—	34.2	—
contribution from	4.3	2.8	5.1	—	—	3.2	0.7	—	8.8	8.4	—	8.7	—
public funds													
others													
	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	—	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	—
<i>1986</i>	<i>1984</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>				<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1985</i>	<i>1982</i>		
employers' contribution	41.4	10.3	32.9	—	52.3	52.7	20.9	52.5	33.6	32.2	54.0	28.7	—
contribution from	19.7	4.2	30.7	—	20.5	26.0	13.0	13.9	25.5	36.3	19.0	16.8	—
protected persons	33.8	77.4	32.5	—	26.7	18.4	65.2	31.5	34.1	15.6	25.0	44.2	—
contribution public	5.1	8.0	3.9	—	0.5	2.9	0.9	2.1	6.8	15.9	2.0	10.3	—
funds													
others													
	100.0	100.0	100.0	—	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

* Estimates.

Source: Sespros, Eurostat.



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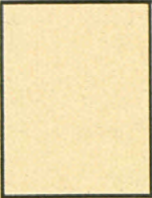
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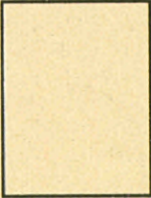
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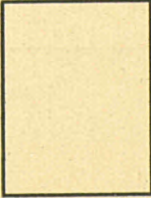
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